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ABSTRACT

This document is a review of current literature on the administration of elementary schools and on the roles elementary school principals play in relating to the issues and problems of their schools. It is part of a larger study on problems confronting elementary school principals (EA 002 923). The literature is classified into six problem areas as outlined in the main body of the study: (1) school and society, (2) pupil personnel, (3) instructional program, (4) administrative leadership, (5) organizational texture, and (6) finances and facilities. A 270-entry bibliography is appended. (DE)

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Issues and Problems in Elementary School Administration

A Review of Related Literature

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SUPPLEMENTARY REPORT

A REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

To

ISSUES AND PROBLEM IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Project No. 8-0428
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Reviewed by:

Gerald Becker, Richard Withycombe, Edgar Miller
Frank Doyel, Claude Morgan, Lou DeLoretto,
Bill Aldridge

Compiled by: Larry Enos

Edited by: Sherrie Schager

under the direction of
Keith Goldhammer

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Center for Educational Research and Service
Oregon State University
Corvallis, Oregon

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Chapter I

SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

Community Influences

Many investigators have studied the community and its effect on the school system. Culbertson (68) pointed out that this is a period of rapid change in areas such as race relations, educational aspirations, occupational opportunities, church-state relations, and governmental roles. According to Culbertson, the school principal cannot "cling to the anchor of the familiar," but must "generate new currents to contend with those supporting the status quo."

The traditional insulation of school systems from the community is being eroded by community pressures to participate in educational decision-making. Examining the demographic trends of the large city, Usdan (256) observed the growing non-white population of the cities, the unemployment rate of non-whites, and the burgeoning of disadvantaged ghettos. He expressed concern that public schools were becoming "mere service institutions" for poor minority groups while inordinate numbers of whites attend parochial or independent private schools.

Dorey (79) identified nine aspects of today's society which have affected the character of the community and consequently the role the schools must assume:

1. The changing relationship with the rest of the world. The technology which can raise the level of human existence to unprecedented heights can also destroy civilization. Thus, the community is no longer comfortable in complacent isolation and non-involvement. It is unavoidable that such insecurity is pervasive and that children do not go untouched by this atmosphere.

2. The impact of science and technology. America has been transformed from a predominately agricultural to a predominately industrial society and thus to an urban rather than a rural society.

3. The rural-urban-suburban transformation of America. The transportation network has made possible mass migration from one area of the country to another.

4. The growth of affluence and increased restlessness among the under-privileged. This is not a small group of Americans--twenty million Americans are living below the poverty line.

5. The information explosion. Television has brought the affluent life into the ghetto home and has brought Americans a flood of information on all facets of life from all over the world.

6. The increased importance of education. Rising affluence and ever-rising standards for employment require the development and implementation of the belief that higher education is desirable for all who can meet the qualifications.

7. Increased mobility of Americans. Americans are the most mobile people on earth. In addition to physical mobility, perhaps even more significant is their social mobility in American society.

8. The growth of organized labor. While educators have traditionally thought themselves to be separate from the labor movement, teacher militancy has become a concern of the administrator and is perhaps but one aspect of increasing militancy on the part of many elements of the community.

9. The changing behavior patterns of American youth. Children are the product of the changing American society. They are influenced, for example, not only by all of the aforementioned changes, but also by the disappearance of movie censorship and by the broad permissiveness reflected in books and magazines. Children today are far more knowledgeable about their world than were their parents at the same age; they are questioning the value systems and ways of behavior which their parents have long taken for granted.

Trenholme (251) predicted that the impact of technology on industry will create an extensive demand for highly skilled technicians in our society and will provide almost no economic future for uneducated and untrained people. He held that because our population is growing rapidly and because almost every industry and economic institution is changing constantly, people must expect to be retrained a number of times in the course of their active careers.

Examining the problem of providing effective education in a racially changing community, Ernatt (97) observed that rural Southern Negroes have migrated to the North and then have moved from the inner city

to more desirable suburbs. This migration, he said, has produced social and educational problems with which educators must deal. As a major institution of the community, the school must be in the forefront in the development of plans which might enable a school community to integrate their schools with a minimum of friction. He argued that if the school can be integrated, then the community might follow. He suggested a type of community action program where the principal would invite leaders of the community such as heads of community organizations, block club representatives, ministers, parents, and local merchants to analyze their community and to help in the development of the action program. In response to the changing character of the community, the school administrator must develop satisfactory interpersonal relationships among the students of two races. The school must help children who have previously lived in an all-white community adjust to the newcomers. At the same time, the principal and his staff must develop some techniques to help the Negro youngster to adjust to his new situation.

Crosby (64) also noted the problems resulting from the flight of middle income families to the suburbs and the movement of increasing numbers of people from the ghettos to better neighborhoods. These factors he felt contribute to some of the greatest social problems facing the nation. He stressed that the total community must accept a share of the responsibility for solving the problems faced by its schools. He urged the schools to open their doors to the community. The school, he said, should not attempt to hide its problems or bluff its way out of an attack but must instead make itself open to the community.

Havighurst (126) viewed the large city as a populous area in which a number of social institutions such as governments, businesses, churches, schools, welfare agencies, and cultural agencies operate to fulfill human purposes. Each of these institutions performs functions which contribute to the total social system. Education, he argued, is viewed by civic leaders as an instrument which can serve to improve the whole community. It can do so not only through the effects on the mind and character of the pupils, but through its effect on the economic system and the social structure of the city. The school system can attract and hold desirable population elements in the city in order to stabilize integrated neighborhoods. Furthermore, it can solve or hold in check the problems of an alienated and economically marginal minority of slum dwellers.

Hamburg (120) suggested that when a school is desegregated or when a large influx of new children is anticipated, an orientation session for parents should be planned. The major problem to be confronted is the stereotypic thinking of adults about ethnic groups. Thus, an important purpose of the orientation session is to dispel preconceptions.

Connelly (60) wrote that the school is frequently the target of criticism because it is a highly visible and ready target. The community is not aware that the learning problems of the inner-city child originate in poor pre-natal care, birth injuries, malnutrition, poor housing, family instability, or grinding, blinding poverty. One must not conclude, however, that this lack of understanding is limited only to the community. Teachers and administrators, too, must adjust to changes in the community, reconsider their goals and means of accomplishing these goals.

Jaffa (147) emphasized the need for understanding between the school and the community in a report on how one school faculty openly faced the challenge of greater achievement for all of its pupils. Teachers had to learn of class background other than their own. There was a lack of interest on the part of parents, few of whom came for parent-teacher conferences or PTA meetings. Frequently both parents worked and in many cases parents working on different shifts seldom were home at the same time. These conditions were reflected in the students' indifference toward school work, their impoverished language background, their lack of adult models, and lack of opportunity to travel outside their immediate neighborhood.

McCarty and Nuccio (174) studied problems and conflicts presently existing among teachers, school board members and administrators in New York State schools. They reported that among the five worst school systems in terms of reported teacher dissatisfaction with personnel relations, three were in economically deprived areas. It appears likely, they concluded, that the community itself, whatever its type, is a strong contributing factor to the quality of personnel relations within the school's organizational system. Schools, they concluded, are profoundly effected by the parsimony of the cultural and financial resources of their supporting communities.

Thus, the nature of the community and the degree of activity it has in school affairs become important considerations for education administrators. Cooper (61) noted that many community sources exert pressure on elementary teaching and curriculum and that the administrator's task is complicated by pressure groups whose goals are both constructive and detrimental to elementary education.

Leidig (163) conducted a study of the relationship between observed on-the-job behavior of fifteen Texas elementary school principals and a number of situational determinates. He found the ethnic composition of the school's community to be the most significant situational variable. The number of problems handled by the principal was found to be significantly related to both the social status and the ethnic characteristics of the community's population.

Faced with increasing pressures from an increasingly complex community, what can the administrator do? Is the present role of the administrator adequate to cope with these new problems? McNally (176) noted the rapid change in large metropolitan areas and suggested that the present conception of the principalship has become inappropriate and outdated. Unless a conception more appropriate to present needs is developed, he said, the principal may well be relegated to the role of managerial caretaker who is given little part in the decision-making process on important professional affairs.

Shedd (230) pointed out that a major task in planning a new program is distinguishing what is needed by the local community. He also noted that the schools can take an active role in creating a climate in which beneficial changes might take place to make people more responsive to each other. There is a tragic need for communication at a more effective level between all those concerned with the education of children. As the result of a study of the results of five hundred questionnaires sent to professional staff members in eighty-five affluent suburban communities, The Suburban Schoolman (243) reported that some teachers and administrators stated that "suburban parents interfere in school affairs."

Every available means must be taken to understand the community. Miller (187) suggested that because the schools exist in a cultural setting, the administrator must make many decisions based on information he obtains regarding the local culture. From a school census he can evaluate the population which the school serves.

Several investigators felt that the schools cannot survive this period of social turmoil unless they are prepared to be responsive to the needs of society. Recognizing the changes in cities, the growth of the "metro-plex," Ravitz (211) called for changes of city institutions including the public school systems. He focused attention on the cultural clash within the cities. Cultural conflict transcends race, he stated, and it is urgently necessary that children of sharply different backgrounds and prospective futures be taught in the same classroom. Should the schools be unable to understand and adapt to the nature of the emerging metro-lex, they, "like countless institutions in the past, will be deemed irrelevant and thus bypassed."

McCarty and Nuccio (174) also noted the threat to the schools from societal pressures. These investigators suggested that unconventional ideas are indeed scarce and that

> Since the school is a social system all its own, it is no easy task to look subversively at its patterned ways of operating. Still, we must seek new models and not

> rely so heavily on the iron law of tradition. Otherwise, the autonomy of the public school may not survive the societal pressures which are beginning to make themselves felt in no uncertain terms.

Federal and State Involvement

The past decade has seen greatly increased state and federal involvement in public education. This has led to fears that there will be a total loss of local control of education, a shift from the traditional administrative structure in American school systems. Furthermore, many feel that control will not shift merely from the local to the state level, but that much authority will lie at the even more distant federal level.

Blanchard (31) in an article, "New Directions in the 60's for Public School Education," argues that there are three reasons why federal aid is a vital necessity: (1) a denial of equal educational opportunity has been far too prevalent in the United States; (2) the denial of decent schooling to millions of people in this country has been, in part, responsible for the social ills which now face the nation; (3) inequities in the financial support of education have been largely responsible for the consequent inequalities in educational opportunities.

The same factors which have led to a change in the composition of the community (and especially the urban community) have in turn compounded the problems facing educators by shrinking the tax base. Usdan (256) reviewed these problems, including the dramatic population shifts, the flight of more affluent citizens to suburbia, and the consequent de facto segregation and chronic unemployment in cities. Ravitz (211) after examining the changing urban environment noted that these changes result in a loss of revenue from a shrinking of the tax base.

Thus, as Havighurst (126) points out, in the early 1950's and to a much greater extent during the 1960's a variety of federal acts began to pour money into local school programs with the principal objective of improving the quality of urban life. These funds were provided under programs such as the Manpower Development and Training Act, the Economic Opportunity Act, the Civil Rights Act, the Elementary and Secondary School Act, and the Higher Education Act.

The shrinking tax base of the urban centers is by no means the only financial problem to be found in American schools. Haussler (125) described the method of determining the tax base in California schools and the difficulties resulting from that method. The problem he described is not limited to California. He noted that the local school boards can only raise the tax base a specified percentage without a vote of the people. Citizens do not have an

opportunity to vote on money spent by the counties, cities, utilities, districts, etc., and, inasmuch as money is in increasingly scarce supply, they tend to take out their feelings regarding the taxes of all other units of government on the only unit which they feel they can reach--the schools.

Irresponsibility cannot be blamed solely on irate taxpayers, however. Blanchard (31) observed that in some cases the states have not honestly accepted the financial responsibility for the educational systems under their jurisdiction. He noted that local school boards are individuals who are sometimes politically appointed and who run a $15,000,000,000 business on a part-time basis. He noted also that because of the disparity between the incomes of the various states, better balance in educational opportunities can be achieved through federal support of education, particularly through the United States Commission of Education.

Justification for increased federal participation in education is not limited solely to the need for the more equitable distribution of funds. Howsam and Morphet (142) examined problems in the certification of educational administrators and found that reciprocity among the states must depend upon a reasonable equivalency in programs of selection, preparation, and screening of educational administrators. They suggested then that some form of national accreditation of institutions be instituted to develop agreements of certification programs between the states.

Not all of the nationalizing influences that are at work in our education system are products of federal initiative. Ashby (9) listed other important factors including: (1) national testing programs, (2) textbooks written for a national audience, (3) national associations of professional groups, (4) pressures on the critics of public education, (5) national hysteria as to the role of the school in the current world situation, (6) mobility of our population, and (7) the college admissions problem and the role of the entrance exams and admissions.

While educators recognize the need for assuring adequate and equitable financial support throughout the American public schools, many fear that these funds will be provided conditionally, i.e., only when compliance with more and more state and federal controls is assured. Many believe that acceptance of these controls will inevitably lead to a sacrifice of local autonomy.

Indeed the tradition of local control has a long history in this country. Haussler (125) pointed out that as far back as the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, the federal government, in disposing of public lands, contributed to school support by assigning Lot Number Sixteen of every township for that purpose. He stressed

that no federal stipulations were attached to that support and all control of the schools was left to the individual states under the "Reserve Powers" clause of the Tenth Amendment. Even the states helped decentralize education by breaking its administration into the smaller county and town units with each school district having its own superintendent and board or committee. Haussler said that the expanding demands of education led to some consolidation of schools in the early 1850's and that states then began to set minimum requirements for the curriculum and passed laws providing for compulsory attendance, certification of teachers, and selection of text books.

Looking at today's school system, Haussler emphasized that much of the public and many school board members are unaware of the extent to which local control has already been swept away and replaced by centralized authorities. He suggested that over the years local school boards have lost this control bit by bit and so gradually that one is aware of the magnitude of the change only if he examines the complete picture.

It is certainly true that the increasingly centralized authority has created some new problems for educators. James (148) cautioned that when the education system becomes a single bureaucracy with a long chain of authority, friction may develop. Plans passed from the planners down to the operational level in such a system may be strongly resisted by those who are expected to implement them.

Nations Schools (255), in reporting an opinion poll conducted in different parts of the country, found that 48 percent of the respondents feared that the federal government might step in and want a bigger voice in school administration. One school man in that opinion poll explained his concern by saying, "The president and congress won't slap on any controls; what bothers me is the feeling of power that federal aid might give the U. S. Office of Education."

Part of this resistance may result from the abundant paperwork which, according to many administrators who took part in the poll, seems invariably to accompany federal aid. One poll participant reflected a general concern in observing that "In terms of time it's going to cost us more to fill out all the federal forms than all of what our district will receive in federal aid."

The strongest opposition to federal and state involvement centers around questions of policy determination. Will local citizens and their boards and the school administrators retain adequate power to shape an educational program appropriate for the local area? James (148) pointed out another area of possible friction between citizens and government should the government become highly

centralized. In some situations the government is hampered in its attempts to penetrate pockets of deviant sub-cultures because most of the civil service is drawn from the dominant subculture. Thus, as participants in the Nations Schools (255) poll frequently commented, local problems can be solved best by local awareness, for each district has unique problems. In some cases it was not the federal government that had upset these administrators, but it was, instead, their own state departments of education. A Missouri administrator lamented, "The law clearly says there shall be no federal control. I'm more concerned with how the state interprets the law."

Several writers pointed out the political aspects of the contest between those favoring state or federal involvement and those protecting local autonomy. Havighurst (126) described the value of cooperation between the schools and other agencies, many of which are already to be found in the urban centers. In general, he said, only a small beginning has been made in bringing about closer cooperation. Tragically, fearing that close cooperation with other agencies might involve them in local politics, many school administrators deprive their schools of the services which the police department, public housing agencies, the department of human relations, and the park department might otherwise offer. Progressive mayors or city managers, however, take a far greater interest in cooperating with the schools than did their predecessors of thirty years ago.

In some cases the states block federal programs. James (148) stressed that it is a legal fact that education in the United States is predominately a state function. He emphasized that federal programs cannot be effective until the states facilitate them "by removing some formidable barriers to change." State legislatures, he said, traditionally have formulated the goals of education, and these goals are presently embedded in statutes and their interpretations by courts in the traditional terms of religion, morality, and knowledge.

Haussler (125) pointed out the tragic outcome of power struggles between competing employee organizations in California. Rather than accepting their responsibility to the public, some education employee groups have tended to support legislation merely because the rival group took the opposition. Cleary (57) noted that in some cases this opposition reflects fundamental differences in policy between leading educational groups. This is illustrated in the 1963 policy positions of the American Federation of Teachers who supported federal aid without qualification and the National Education Association who supported the general principle of federal aid but who opposed assistance to private institutions. The National School Board Association, reflecting its heavily conservative membership, opposed an expanded program of federal aid at that time.

Cleary concluded that Congressional reaction to federal aid to education can be regarded largely as an example of another problem, the tendency of liberals and conservatives to take their positions by votes and to fight the same old battles instead of considering how it will affect the future of American education. He maintained that in 1961 and again in 1962, questions of vital educational importance were decided largely on non-education grounds. Many educators were suspicious of the government and therefore strongly defended the absolute necessity of preserving intellectual independence as well as the standards of the school. They refused to attempt to work through the political system, even for the betterment of the educational system.

Other educators recognize that increasing federal and state involvement is urgently required. Blanchard (31) argued that a very strong case can be made in favor of federal control of education. He pointed out that the federal government has taken over the basic control of aviation and railroads and that there is a great deal of cooperation between federal and state agencies on highways and hospitals. Federal laws, he said, support state laws in the fight against crime and vice. The Supreme Court has an increasingly important role in influencing the educational systems within the states.

Blanchard proposed that a new national concept of public education be established along the following lines:

1. Public school education should be provided with a central authority whose task would be to do for all the states what they cannot do for themselves.

2. Regulatory devices would be suggested for public school education that all activities may be directed toward the goal of the general welfare.

3. Public schools would be given more reasonable freedom in their programs.

4. Expert assistance would be provided to public schools.

5. Financial disparity now existing would be eliminated.

6. The United States Office of Education could attract the best prepared personnel providing an education leadership heretofore unknown.

7. Teachers pension and retirement systems would be transferable from one state to another.

8. Salary inequities would be eliminated.

9. National councils presently existing in all academic and non-academic areas would be strengthened.

10. The goals of education would be clearly discernible to all states, although the means for achieving them might be diversified.

11. A national certification system would allow teachers free passage from one state to another, eliminating the current pre-registration renewal examination and additional course requirements.

12. A code of ethics, to which is presently paid mere lip service, would carry additional weight.

Perhaps the most extreme proposals involve the abolition of local school boards for the purpose of making it possible to direct the operations of the schools solely from the state level. This, Haussler (125) pointed out, is what has happened in Hawaii and is also the system adopted in the new State Constitution of Alaska. The State of Utah determined in 1963 the salaries and working conditions throughout the entire state.

For those who seek increased state and federal involvement in education, but who also wish to retain substantially the traditional framework of education including adequate local control, some workable compromise must be reached. Techniques must be developed for making the most effective use of state and federal aid while retaining local control to meet the unique needs of diverse districts.

Ashby (9) wrote in the article, "Don't Lose Local Control by Default," that the problem is a drift toward a haphazard set of nationalizing influences. Having recognized the problem, he offered the following six suggestions for consideration in maintaining integrity and initiative at the local level:

1. There must be first of all integrity at the local administrative level. The administrator must learn to work effectively with others or it will not matter for long where he stands. He must recognize that he serves the national community as well as the local community.

2. There must be essential integrity in the board membership if the school system is to maintain integrity as a unit. The local board members must be intelligent individuals motivated only

by the best interests of the school and not motivated by personal or political interests.

3. Administration and the board must jointly resist under pressures from all directions. This might be brought about by plain refusal to participate in such programs as the National Testing Program, reimbursement from NDEA, ESEA, or other types of programs. On the other hand, refusal to accept reimbursement from some of the acts might lead to an imbalance of the school program.

4. The school population and the local district must be large enough to make good schools possible. Districts can be both too large and too small for effective control at the grass roots level. Size is far from the determining factor in the search for quality but it is still one of the foundations on which policy may best be developed. Thus, consolidation and reorganization of the school district may be beneficial to help keep the control at the local level.

5. The local district must continuously carry on experimental and research programs which are carefully evaluated. Such programs afford not only the needed research but also opportunities for special projects where the capacity and interest of capable staff members can be raised, and used to good advantage for the school district. Some types of research of a theoretical nature are best carried out at a level with greater resources than a local school system commands, but solid research is needed in every phase of the school operation.

6. Leadership at the state level is most important. Some of the state departments act effectively as a buffer against the national pressures that are reflected at the usual level and local school districts.

While concerned chiefly with the certification of educational administrators, Howsam and Morphet (142) include the following recommendations which might lead to amicable cooperation between all interested levels of government:

1. Education in the United States is best when it involves a partnership of the state, local districts, professional organizations, colleges and universities, and the public.

2. Control of education should be as close to the people as possible.

3. State educational agencies should emphasize its leadership role and responsibilities and seek to operate at a minimum extent of control.

4. To make state leadership and local control possible, each state should provide leadership in developing adequate local units capable of performing this function and in developing such intermediate units as are desirable.

5. The state should set minimum requirements only as they are felt necessary. They should not interfere with desirable initiative and responsibility on the part of local authorities.

6. Desirable qualities in educational programs are best achieved through self-appraisal and improvement, rather than through prescription and regulation.

Goal Setting

Education is a vastly more complex undertaking today than it was several decades ago. Society itself has become complex, and technology offers new challenges and opportunities. Far more is now known about the education process. Today's schools are not only expected to prepare youth to assume a useful role in the society, but they are also expected to produce, if possible, individuals who will take their places in the community, who with their coworkers and their families, will be able to lead satisfying and productive lives.

To meet these expectations, the schools must first anticipate them. What goals are to be given priority? Do goals vary depending on the setting? Are the goals of urban schools quite different from those of rural America? Are the needs of one subculture different from those of another? Or are there goals common to the broad spectrum of American school districts?

And who will determine the goals? With increased federal and state involvement in education local school boards may feel that they have lost the authority to determine local goals and programs to meet local needs. National organizations of educators sometimes seem to be at cross-purposes. Local pressure groups maneuver to have their own goals adopted as the guide for school policy. Is it possible for the schools to develop programs which will satisfy the needs (real and imagined) of every individual, every pressure group, and every community?

Brownell (44) argued that it is indeed quite possible to maintain concern for the needs of the individual, even in the largest schools. In an article, "Big City Schools: Problems and Prospects; Keeping Your School Human," he noted that the school must be a place which is generally concerned with people, each one a human being with special needs of his own. This concern, he pointed out, is not to be directed only toward students, but toward everyone in the education process--the administrators, the clerks, the janitors, secretarial workers. He suggested that in small communities, friendly, intimate relations among pupils, parents, teachers, and other school personnel are fostered out of school by their small community life. Brownell observed that decentralization of administration is one of the major steps that large school systems have taken in order to bring the school closer to the people, thus keeping them human.

Chandler (53) stressed the need of the administrator to be able to relate the objectives of his school system to the needs of his community and to all of society. The primary role of the school administrator is, he felt, that of providing leadership in school and community education. But in order to provide leadership which will enable the schools to meet the needs of the community, principals must be trained in areas other than the managerial facets of the job. They must have a background in the historical, philosophical, sociological and psychological foundations of education. Such educational service calls, for high competence in both liberal and professional education.

Erickson (93) noted that while the doctrine of the community school has been widely written about in the literature, relatively few systems, particularly in the cities, have given the principal much freedom to fit the school to the community. He pointed out,

> Perhaps this discrepancy between dogma and practice is attributable in part to the belief that the equality of educational opportunity means uniformity of program. At any rate, there has been a marked tendency in the larger school districts to decide at the system-wide level how the human and material resources of the school will be combined and to program the activities of the individual schools in important measure through uniform regulations.

Erickson believed that the role the principal presently plays in areas of instructional supervision is diminishing.

> If teachers follow the pattern established by other occupational groups, they will be governed more and more by internalized norms as they acquire greater expertise and will resist the supervisory and evaluatory efforts of persons whom they do not recognize as fellow experts.

He believed that the principal's new role will be that of a strategic coordinator. Such a role amounts to the identification of strategic coordination patterns through the rational and artful combination of the discrete human and material components of a school and its community to form a functioning whole, an educational instrument for a particular group of students and a particular juncture in time.

The Missouri School Board Association and the Missouri State Teachers Association (189) emphasized that their first principle concerning teachers, administrators, and school board relations was that they all had the same ultimate aim, that of providing for the best possible educational program. Implementation of the best possible education program required that procedures should be cooperatively determined and developed to meet the unique needs of the community and of the school system. "The success of this endeavor," they stated, "depends upon appropriate knowledge, maturity of judgement, and commitment to the welfare of children on the part of all boards of education, administrators, and teachers."

Shedd (230) was concerned with the failure to produce organizations capable of adapting a program of a given school to the needs of a given child. He felt that uniformity has become an implicit goal, guidelines have become "mental corrals" and that individual cases are handled by general precepts. Communication, he said, is supplemented by directive inter-action and is confused with convention; stability is equated with "stalitity." Thus,

> The net affect is that those at the bottom of the bureaucratic pyramid, the principals and the teachers, become clerks, and children who bear the total weight of the structure are not so much educated as processed.

The big city schools, Shedd said, are not "a different kind of animal," but bear similarities to public education in other settings. The city schools do, however, magnify the flaws of general educational practice. The urban systems have created bureaucracies which lead to a stifling philosophical and procedural rigidity. This rigidity is illustrated by the low income pupils of urban systems who are unable and unwilling to conform to notions of what children and/or schools should be. Nevertheless, dictation demands uniformity. Decentralization, he said, is the key to transforming urban school systems. Through decentralization the following goals can be achieved: (1) create a climate which respects individual needs and concerns of all the participants; (2) change the available career patterns and reward systems; (3) make greater use of the community's resources; (4) help people to be more responsive to each other.

The goals of educators must be continuously open to reappraisal. Gilchrist and Bergstrom (110) emphasized, "unless we work constantly at clarifying and reexamining our values, our daily behavior will not be consistent with what we believe." They explained that we normally place value first on our respect for dignity and worth of each individual. This means educationally that we must provide for development of individuals to their fullest potential--where these potentials are in keeping with results that we also value. The authors emphasized that we must be constantly alerted to the development of the needs of children so that we are not attempting to satisfy outmoded and outdated needs.

Gilchrist and Bergstrom then pointed out that learning best takes place when each individual learns within his own perceptual framework. Thus, learning takes place best when the individual himself is directed by goals. As curriculum leaders, they argued, we must first guide the children's thinking so they can begin to analyze and articulate their needs. In determining these goals and in clarifying and reexamining our values, we must constantly ask the question, "Do we have our feet solidly on the ground, philosophically and psychologically?" To do these jobs adequately, teachers and those who serve teachers need to know what goals are most worth achieving in the light of world events and are permanent values, and how to guide children in building their own value systems.

However, Cornog (62) argued, "I think it's time to get the schools out of the mercantile frame of mind which describes their business as the business of 'meeting needs.'" The primary job of the schools, he said, is not training for citizenship or consumptionship or producership or life adjustmentship or any other kind of gainsmanship. "The great danger in mass education which is a noble, unique, and exciting experiment is that it may become beguiled and enthralled by numbers, productivity and service functions."

Cornog continues,

> I don't think that American education should be centrally based upon society's self-seeking and self-preserving demands. The prime requirement of a citizen in a free society, or rather any free society. He must be a person. And know that he is a person, sovereign, integral, and inviolate. . . . the business of education in a democracy is the cultivation of such persons that they may understand, enjoy, and reverence the high and difficult task of being man and defending all man's aspirations to be equally integral and free.

James (148) examined special problems that arise when national goals become the primary concern and when schools become an instrument of change. In the article, "Problems in Administration and Finance when National Goals Become Primary," he stressed that one problem "is that of translating the aims of education, usually formulated in traditional, philosophical, or religious terms into economic, social, and political terms." He explained,

> Small groups at the center of any national government may readily agree upon the goals to be pursued through election or through education rather. Problems arise in gaining the necessary political consensus to use legitimate power and force if necessary to disrupt the traditional problems of cultural transmission sufficiently to allow the goals to be pursued. The conditions for resolution for them, controversial issues while they may be debated occasionally by educators and administrators, are being hammered out in politics or in the political aspects of Congress and in the state legislature.

James then pointed out that statements of national goals in the United States can be readily formulated, as was evidenced by the President's Commission on National Goals in 1960. These goals as formulated stirred widespread interest and appeared to have widespread support; vigorous efforts were made by the national administration to implement these goals. Nevertheless, efforts to achieve these national goals were obstructed in several important areas. Opposition by state legislatures which traditionally formulated the goals of education, by strong county governments in the South, or by strong city governments in the North was not unusual.

Haussler (125), in his examination of local control of public schools, concluded that partisan politics, competing education organizations, and all the other sources of problems facing administrators must be viewed in their proper perspective. The welfare of the pupils must always be uppermost in the minds of school board members, the greatest contribution they can make is to become aware of the serious effect these local problems have on students.

Perhaps, as Edelfelt (87) suggested, the instrument of accreditation by independent, outside agencies, with its dual purposes of regulation and stimulation may accomplish reevaluation of goals. Accrediting, he stated, can prompt productive self-evaluation by a faculty of the purposes, programs, faculty, library, personnel policies, physical facilities, and other indicators of quality in each school. Criticism from external sources can stimulate change and improvement, thereby increasing public and legislative support. Furthermore, under the pressure of accreditation the assignment of responsibility for establishing

goals and standards may be clarified within a school system. Is the establishment of goals the responsibility of the central administration or is it one of the function of the teachers and administrators who actually operate the school?

All those who would attempt to establish useful goals in education must be aware of the impact of technology on today's society. Emphasizing this in "The Principal and the New Technology," Trenholme and Turville (251) observed that the need for consideration of new technology in education has been brought about by expansion of industrial applications of technology as well as by scientific advancement. Citing one example, they stated that there will be an extensive need for highly skilled technicians in our society and almost no economic future for uneducated and untrained people. Another major factor is the effect of the great increase in man's knowledge, particularly in the scientific fields. We must devise better methods of understanding and transmitting accumulated knowledge to our students. Certainly the corporate structure has recognized the importance of meeting the needs of individual students. Thus, book companies, audio-visual companies, and equipment corporations have given very high priority to producing far more sophisticated combinations of equipment and materials.

Trenholme and Turville stressed that the elementary principal is one of the focal points for all the new approaches designed to meet the educational problems which are caused by the great social changes of our time. The effective principal increasingly searches for better means of transmitting information and for more ways to meet the individual needs of his students.

It is difficult to assign a priority to the goals of American education. Meeting the needs of the individual student is important. He will, it is hoped, be prepared to lead a life which is satisfying to himself. Yet, we have seen the success of the community and even the nation may depend on the roles that schools choose to define for themselves. It is necessary, therefore, to create a complex pattern of roles for the schools. These will frequently require cooperation between the leaders of local districts, counties, states, and national governing bodies. Highly developed means of communication are necessary between political leaders, educators, industrial representatives, and concerned citizens everywhere. All concerned must be willing to reexamine these goals frequently in order to keep them relevant to the needs of a changing society.

Public Relations

The public school system in this country, Cornog (62) wrote, is more responsible to the will or the whims of the people than is any other public agency that we have created. Campbell (48) suggested, however, that there is not one public, but many publics. School administrators soon discover that these many publics often hold sharply different views about the tasks of the school. Furthermore, the education system is unique in that it is a system whose major functions seem to be delegated to it by other systems. It is unique also in the range of its functions and in its close relationships to the other social institutions.

The school principal finds himself caught in the middle of bitter disputes over what roles the schools should play in students' lives, in community development, and even in state and national development. Whenever new programs for the schools are considered, opposition from various quarters can be anticipated. The goals of one pressure group may be quite different from that of another. The willingness to allocate resources may vary among interested parties. Even among educators themselves there may be strong disagreement about what roles the schools should play and about the best way to attain goals.

In many instances it is the principal who is expected to initiate change in the schools at the request of various pressure groups. Or, as an active leader in education, the principal himself may desire to develop new programs within his school on his own initiative. It is important that the principal be prepared to mediate disputes among factions satisfactorily or to prepare the way for new programs which seem desirable. In a time of rapid change and increasing public interest in the schools, the principal's skill in public relations has become increasingly important.

Culbertson (68) noted changes in race relations, educational aspirations, occupational opportunities, church-state relations, governmental roles, and other facets of society which make demands on today's citizens and on those having leadership responsibility in the schools. He emphasized the increasingly open confrontation of the old with the new. This confrontation brings "little tranquility to the people in positions of educational leadership and even less opportunity to cling to the anchor of the familiar." Leaders in education can, he pointed out, react to change in three ways. First, they may choose to <u>lead</u> by helping create new educational structures, programs, and practice. Or, they may <u>follow</u> by adopting structures and procedures created by others. Third, they might <u>resist</u> the pressure to change. In any case, as heads of schools, they can neither ignore nor escape the forces of change.

School principals have become increasingly aware of the need for good public relations. Crossfield (66), in a study, "The Changing World of the Principal--As Some Kansas Principals See It," stated,

> The elementary school principal of the future must have better human relations skills for working effectively with community members. Good public relations assume growing significance, especially if conflicts arise and pressure groups seek to attain their own particular goals. Often, however, the ability of the principal to respond to challenges in this area is limited by conditions beyond his control.

Cooper (61), in his study of extra pressures affecting teachers and curriculum in the elementary schools of Indiana, analyzed the nature, sources, results, purposes, and methods of application of pressures, and reached these important conclusions:

1. Elementary teaching and curriculum were subjected to numerous influences originating from many community sources.

2. In a number of incidents it was the same pressure source which exerted both constructive and detrimental pressure on elementary education.

3. Some pressure sources were not recognized or interpreted at the level of the elementary teacher and principal but at the level of the school superintendent.

4. Pressures which were easiest to direct toward constructive ends usually originated in a desire to serve the best interests of the child, the school, and the community.

5. Pressures which were most difficult to control usually arose out of financial desires and out of emotional responses to deeply held convictions.

Despite a growing conviction that educational administration has much in common with public administration, hospital administration, business administration, and administration in other organizations, the schools are, Cornog (62) noted, high in public visibility. The public view of the factory as an organization, particularly in its internal operation, is far less true for the college and in the school. Furthermore, he said, the management of the factory need not be particularly sensitive to public opinion except as that opinion is connected to the product of the factory. In contrast, the public school is highly visible at all times and must be sensitive and responsive to its many publics.

The relationship between principals and parents or parent groups is recognized as especially important by administrators. Brackett (34), in a study of elementary school principals in Colorado, noted that principals view parent groups as mainly public relations subjects.

Kaiser (151) stressed the importance of understanding how the parent views the school office. Their points of view fluctuate with the reasons for visiting the office. In most cases, parents expect the principal's office to be such things as a clearing-house for the meetings and programs they are involved in, the lost-and-found department for their children's belongings, a complaint department where they can lodge complaints about bus service, teachers, janitorial service, cafeteria, activities on the playground, the library, and the type of program that the school has in its curriculum. When there is a problem in the home, many parents expect the principal to become concerned; they do not want to be dismissed lightly because problems such as these, they feel, influence their children's learning. Each of these occasions provides opportunities for good public relations. Though many of these problems seem trivial, parents feel that the principal's office should be a friendly, cooperative, and efficient place, a place they can leave feeling better than they did when they arrived. They like the principal to show sincere interest, to keep tensions at a minimum and to cooperate wherever feasible. Through good public relations parents will have feelings of assurance and well-being. The attitude of the personnel in the principal's office toward the parents who visit will make them feel that the school is a fine one and that their children are receiving a good education.

A singular approach to good public relations with parents was discussed in an article, "How to Get Visitors Off Your Back" in School Management (137). People who dropped in a number of times a month to go through and look at classrooms sometimes disturbed and upset classroom routine. One principal developed a simple, sensible system for handling school visitors which not only gave administrators more time to work, but also gave the visitors more time to look.

The principal set aside one day each month for all visitations and all calls were scheduled on that date if it was convenient for the visitors. At the next staff meeting, the principal notified the teachers of the visitation date, if other activities had been scheduled on that date, he contacted the visitors and changed the date. Two or three days before the visiting day, the principal asked the teachers to submit a class schedule for that day, and the secretary then compiled mimeographs for the visitors. On the day of the visit the principal or superintendent presided over an hour-long orientation session. The

visitors then set up their own schedule, spending as much time as they wished in each area. Such a program left visitors free to observe without a guide hurrying them along, and at the orientation session, they could ask all of the questions they wished.

Another effort toward effective public relations was described in the School Management (139) article, "How to Make Parents Responsible for Discipline." In this case a superintendent of schools asked a committee of parents and other people in the community to write a code of conduct for parents. The eighteen-member committee included a cross-section of parents with children in kindergarten through high school. Some were PTA members, some were businessmen, others were simply volunteers from the community. The committee agreed that it was difficult to enforce discipline because they lacked the support of other parents. Therefore, rather than making up a set of iron-clad rules, they put down on paper a general statement of what most parents believed in and tried to teach their children. This statement included such items as the responsibility of the parent to teach respect for the authority of teachers, to watch after the children's physical and mental health, and to attend parents' conferences and school programs. Statements about why students should not be allowed to smoke and why "going steady" is dangerous were also included. The final draft of this code was endorsed by the board of education, school faculties, PTA's and many local civic groups, and was then mailed to the 3,500 homes in the district. Though no attempt was made to enforce these rules, they established guide-lines which had the approval of both the community and school authorities.

Including citizens from the community in making studies and recommendations is of vital importance, according to Brownell (44), who examined the problems of big city schools. His study of the Detroit Board of Education revealed that citizen committees took their job seriously and produced excellent constructive reports.

Foskett (104), in his study, "For Better Decision-making," stated,

> By and large, lay people, be they voting citizens, members of the school board, or members of a lay committee are reasonable and surprisingly enlightened when they understand the problem and have access to the relevant information. At the same time, they can be surprisingly unreasonable and stupid when they do not know the real problem and do not have the relevant information.

Foskett stated also that one basic obstacle to effective communication with the general public is the administrators' hesitancy to get problems out in the open. Crosby (64) stressed that the community must accept its responsibility to share in the solution of problems faced by its schools, and the schools must willingly open their doors to the community. He also warned that the school should not attempt to hide its problems or bluff its way out of an attack but must deal openly with the community it serves.

Culbertson (68) considered both the organizational structure of our educational system and the frequent negative attitudes of school personnel to be barriers to change. He suggested that principals take more active and deliberate action to generate new currents of opinion to contend with those opinions supporting the status quo. The principal must be willing to accept help from the community. Curtin (69) commented,

> This help must come from all of his professional colleagues--administrative, supervisory, and teaching. It will need to come from parents of a school community and from social agencies within the community. This help, freely given and gratefully accepted, increases the principal's responsibility to his constituents because it makes his position the focal point, the integrative center, for those activities which will further the purposes of the school.

Willingness to make use of lay committees in advisory capacities has become a recognizable trend, according to a study of pressures affecting teachers and curriculum conducted by Cooper (61). He also pointed to the value of lay advisory committees where they function to aid in the control of external pressures.

The principal must use good public relations practices not only to contend with the conflicting goals of various pressure groups which are actively interested in present programs, but he must anticipate future programs and future potential barriers to progress. In examining team teaching experiments, Anderson (7) noted that it is especially important for administrators and others to realize that even the small steps towards team teaching must be taken with the utmost care. Few, if any, school districts are, he said, presently in a position to launch team teaching with any less than one or two years' preparation. He suggested that, as far as public relations is concerned, the following prerequisite conditions must be met before team teaching can be implemented: (1) The community and the school districts should have and enjoy harmonious

and constructive working relationships for a number of consecutive years; (2) There should be a history of sincere interest in, and efforts towards, the rewarding of superior staff service; (3) The school district and its officers should in recent years have developed rather strong ties, through a variety of mutual studies and activities, with one or more colleges or universities of high caliber.

Brown (41) suggested in the article, "School Administration--Experienced Schoolmen Talk to Beginners," that through education and personal experimentation administrators can become effective in public relations. He noted that the hardest and biggest part of the job is getting along with people and gave the following advice concerning public relations:

1. Were I to begin as a school administrator again, I'd do my utmost to cultivate a genial disposition.

2. Most of us do not give enough time to our attitudes.

3. We differ much in our ability to be friendly.

4. A friendly, general attitude towards others is probably an acquired characteristic.

5. Don't give the excuse that you were born that way; you were not.

6. One is to a great extent what others think he is. One tends to live up to a reputation, especially if it is good.

7. Friendliness is one's attitude toward his job. Be a good listener. Let others tell the stories.

8. It is wise to endure what one cannot cure.

Brown makes the following suggestions which will help the principal develop a reputation as a man with whom the public can expect to deal amicably and effectively:

1. Tradition is a strong force. It doesn't break easily, but it will bend readily. Bend it when necessary.

2. Support your teachers.

3. Be honest and frank with pupils.

4. Never make an unnecessary rule or regulation, one which is going to be difficult or impossible to enforce.

5. Promise little, but keep the promises you make.

6. Let the parent talk. Usually all she needs is a chance to unload.

7. If you have been unfair, don't go home until you have corrected your injustice.

8. Distribute responsibility and authority.

9. Don't be afraid to take a bigger job.

10. Pay your bills promptly and live within your income.

11. Build a reputation for fairness, honesty, firmness, and friendliness.

12. Beware of inertia and tradition.

13. Never let a young person down. Never let a child lose confidence in you.

The principal's tasks have become so broad, so varied and complex that he must rely more and more on those with whom he works in the school and in the community. Anderson (7) noted that the literature suggests that the profession is in a state of increasing open-mindedness about the ways children should be brought together for instructional purposes, and the way schools should make use of the different talents that reside in the professional staff. An informed public can be responsive to change under the leadership of an active, informed, and sensitive principal who has developed essential skills in human relations.

Chapter II

PUPIL PERSONNEL

Involvement

Principals are now encouraging greater pupil involvement in various aspects of their education. In some cases students are encouraged to help in the operation of a school and in other cases changes in curriculum structure and methods are being made to facilitate greater pupil involvement in the instructional program.

Grieder (114) examined both of these possibilities in "The Administrators' Clinic--Administrator-Teacher Relationships Must be Improved on a Grand Scale." While he recognized that in group situations some structure and control must be imposed for the sake of expediency, he suggested that there are endless opportunities for involving students for the purpose of giving them problem-solving practice. He felt that the development of the problem-solving opportunities for students is an essential part of the responsibilities of not only the teacher but also the principal. Grieder stressed that students can and should be given practice in really helping to run a school. Otherwise, he cautioned, the school becomes a policing institution. Liberal opportunities for real decision-making are present in student activities, especially through student councils.

Miller (187) also emphasized the importance of student participation. A broad array of out-of-class activities are necessary, he stated, to meet pupil interests. Such activities would provide important democratic group-life experiences. Miller further pointed out that while learning is an individualized experience, schooling is basically group work. He emphasized that education is a continuing process of discovering and enhancing the individual and of helping him to relate to others in a group situation. It is the purpose of schools to improve society by improving the ability of individuals to relate to each other.

Many students apparently feel that the principal's office is a place where they will receive a sympathetic and understanding reception. Elementary school pupils' comments were quoted by Lawrie (162) in an article, "How I see the Principal's Office--From Children." The majority of these said they liked the principal and thought of the principal's office as a nice place to go. They mentioned the help they received from the principal in fire drills, the lost and found, and the help which the principal gave the teacher. They liked the friendly people in the principal's office.

Such an atmosphere as the one described above encourages pupil involvement. The principal can do much to create this atmosphere and to develop a program of activities of interest to all students. The principal is, furthermore, being called upon to contribute to the development of opportunities for the student to gain experience in problem-solving and decision-making.

Management

Pupil management becomes correspondingly complex as community influences become more complex. Perhaps the most readily apparent problem of pupil management involves discipline within the schools. The community, a heterogeneous mixture of cultures, ethnic groups, and widely divergent economic groups, holds a variety of views about what the degree and nature of pupil management should be.

Effective pupil management, however, requires much more than policing and punishing. Miller (187) stressed that punishment is a result of the failure or inability to work out better pupil assignment. The importance of effective pupil assignment cannot be overemphasized. Three of its most important aspects, pupil assessment and development, individual differences, and cultural differences, will be examined in the next sections of this review of the literature. A possible means of developing self-discipline in students is the establishment of codes under which students guide themselves. In the article "How to Make Parents Responsible for Discipline," the existence of student codes was given as a reason why students did not oppose the establishment of guidelines for parents to follow in raising their children. (See the foregoing discussion of literature related to public relations problems.)

Pupil Assessment and Development

Frequent assessment of the pupils' progress is an important part of the overall educational program. Only through such assessment can teachers, counselors, and administrators determine whether the student's needs are being met by the school's instructional program.

Miller (187) examined the background of the system of reporting pupil progress in American schools and identified some of the problems inherent in that system. Reporting pupil progress began not necessarily as an interest of the school but possibly because of the interest shown by parents in what progress the student was making. At first, an arbitrary range between failing and one

hundred was established. Miller pointed out that there is inconsistency in the grading system used by teachers, not only from one teacher to another, but from the grading of one paper to the next by the same teacher.

Miller pointed out that recent grouping practices have resulted in further recognition of the problems inherent in the traditional grading system. Grouping youngsters according to their abilities or interests requires that new criteria be established for the grading of these youngsters. Grades are becoming an award for effort, he warned, rather than a means of measuring the learning that takes place. Miller advised that reporting for progress' sake must be restored and that reporting of this nature is best accomplished through parent-teacher conferences or parent-teacher-student conferences. These conferences establish an atmosphere and environment in which the combined knowledge about the child from both the parent and the teacher can be developed.

Kingston (153) believed, on the other hand, that in spite of sporadic attacks on the present system of reporting, the traditional report card is a major means by which the elementary school reports pupil progress to parents. Teacher grading and reporting systems are likely to continue to fill this role in one form or another. Kingston recognizes the belief of many educators that although there is "general agreement that 'teachers' marks are unreliable and invalid indexes of growth, they are indispensible tools."

Kingston observed that professional educators seem to be more concerned than parents about the adequacy of grades and reporting systems. Educators are apparently more aware of the limitations of typical grading schemes for evaluating progress towards complex educational objectives. Citing other studies, Kingston pointed out that the majority of parents of fifth and sixth grade pupils prefer letter grades and disapprove of the statement type of reports. Other research indicated that parents tend to prefer whatever type of reporting system is presently in use. Parents, it was pointed out, often have unwarranted confidence in the precision with which grades in school supposedly indicate the child's ability and likelihood of success in adult life.

Kingston believed that although many difficulties continue to plague the teacher-administrator in evaluating pupil progress, some real progress has been made in improving reporting practices. It is no longer common practice, for example, to provide separate scales for judging academic achievement and for dealing with attitudes, personal social adjustment, and other non-cognitive aspects of development. He noted also that many reporting systems now make provision for conveying to parents other significant information about levels of reading achievement and health practices.

Kingston described other approaches to reporting pupil progress. One such system provides two grades, one reflecting the child's achievement in terms of the growth norm and one in terms of his achievement in terms of hiw own potentialities and abilities. An advantage of such a system is that it is easier for parents to understand the meaning of the child's grade. Phone conversations, various types of correspondence, parent-teacher interviews and collections of a pupil's work are commonly employed means by which school and home exchange pertinent information about children.

Adequate assessment of pupil progress is important not only to the parents but to the teachers as well. In a study for Nations Schools titled, "How Much Homework is Enough? School Men Aren't Sure, Survey Shows," Cutler (70) stressed that in assigning homework the pupils' capabilities should be considered. Advice on procedures to follow in making homework assignments in an Albuquerque, New Mexico, plan included the following:

> Every possible effort should be made to individualize homework assignments, rather than to make 'blanket' assignments. . . . Unless properly and thoroughly assigned and corrected by the teacher, homework can very effectively teach dishonesty, slovenliness, and a disdain for intellectual activity.

Gilchrist (110) emphasized that we must be constantly alert to the development of the needs of children so that we are not attempting to satisfy outmoded and outdated needs. The teacher learns all he can about the children he will teach so that his goals can in turn reflect the individual needs of his students. Thus, he will redefine his goals for each new year and base them upon his appraisal of his students.

Kingston (153) found the following practices to be advantageous in reporting pupil progress:

1. Assessments of attitudes, conduct, and student citizenship should not be part of the evaluating marks in content areas.

2. Comments by teachers on specific weaknesses and strengths of students have been reported to enhance children's learning. Positive rather than negative comments are most beneficial.

3. Work samples which illustrate a child's skills, accompanied by an explanatory note from the teacher can promote parents' understanding of the marks and school objectives, especially in the very early school years.

4. Report cards should give enough information to portray the student's status but they should be functional enough to let the teacher mark the student objectively. The more entries appearing on a report card and the greater range of child behavior coverage the more likely it seems to be that the report card will best meet the objectives and definitions of the marking system.

5. Informal letters and parent-teacher conferences enhance the school-parent-child relationship.

6. No single system of marking seems to be adequate for reporting. A combination of reporting devices are desirable.

Kingston quoted a comment written in a report by Crosby which perhaps best summarized the important role of effective pupil assessment: "If a report helps the child, his parents, and the teachers learn more about what he is capable of, where he is reaching his potential, and what is being done to foster his learning, and perhaps most significant of all if it provides something to grow on," then, Crosby said, it is a good report.

Individual Differences

Elementary school principals regard the problem of recognizing individual differences and providing programs capable of meeting individual needs as one of the most urgent in the schools. Hoffman (133) reported on a study of new California schools which were staffed with unqualified principals during the 1950's. The study was an attempt to determine what problems a beginning principal faced in the continuous search for better education for children. Of the problems classified as curriculum, instruction, and guidance, over one half were related to planning of organized learning experiences to provide for individual differences among children. Among the ten problems identified by one half or more of the participants as the most difficult to solve were those of assessing individual and group needs and planning and organizing learning experiences to meet individual needs. Specifically, the participants referred to problems of assessing the needs of the rapid learner in the regular classroom and of children in the primary grades.

That elementary school principals recognize the importance of providing for individual differences was further substantiated by a nation-wide survey of public elementary school organization and administration initiated by the U. S. Office of Education. Dean (73) reported in National Elementary Principal that the

study summarized practices, policies, and trends in elementary schools in urban locations of more than 2,500 throughout the country. Included among the four most serious problems faced by the principals was that of providing for exceptional children and that of providing programs of special education. This study indicated that principals still need to improve their skills and effectiveness in dealing with the instructional program of their schools.

Various attempts have been made to provide for individual differences. Anderson (7) described one such experiment for Nations Schools in an article, "Three Experiments in Team Teaching." He pointed out that during the decade prior to the 1950's the educational system was in a relatively static condition, particularly insofar as school organization and personnel structure was concerned. During the 1950's attention was drawn to such features as self-contained elementary classrooms and the architectural concepts geared to this and other new patterns. There was, Anderson said, an enlivened interest in new or different approaches to familiar problems, especially those of personnel and instruction. There was a growing awareness that many existing arrangements were either archaic in concept, unsuitable to the present requirements, or impractical in the present sociological-economical environment.

According to Anderson, two of today's major movements in elementary education are aimed at removing the egg-carton aspect of school organization. The first of these is non-grading, an effort to remove the firm insulation between the classes in order that every child may proceed at an appropriate speed through the total curriculum. The other major movement is that of reorganizing the staffing practices which presently keep teachers from collaborating and planning. Anderson pointed out that the team approach is most likely to be adopted to avoid the "egg carton" classrooms. Other personnel can be included in the team including various specialists. In this way students can be provided programs more suited to their individual needs. Anderson stated that the phenomena defined as "pupil security" is not weakened by exposure to a greater number of teachers and classmates in a variety of situations of the sort created by the team teaching method.

Jaffa (147) stressed the problems of individual differences in his report, "Approach to the Problems of a Downtown School." He pointed out that along with reading and other abilities, the staff also assessed the social, emotional, and physical maturity of a youngster in considering his placement. In an area such as reading, if he was progressing more rapidly than the other members of his group, he could be moved very easily to another group where he would be working with youngsters more on his level. If he was having trouble advancing he might be moved to another group at a lower level.

Miller (187) listed a number of problems found in the administration of the American school system, several of which involved problems regarding individual differences. Awareness of the diversity of students and the desire to give individual assistance have sparked the growth of guidance and counseling programs; counselors, Miller said, provide a source of security for students. He noted the relationship between student discipline and failure or inability to work out better pupil assignment.

Miller further suggested that the staffing pattern of a school system is related to the needs of the students. The most significant factor of a school is, he argued, the number and kinds of pupils it has, the individual interests and abilities of the pupils, and their compatability. In staffing a school, consideration must be given to the individual teacher but also to the desirable characteristics of the total staff in relation to the students enrolled in the school and the community. A heterogeneous group of teachers provides the students with practical experiences in human relations.

Trenholme (251) described the application of the new technology to education. Schools are now being designed around the concept of the teacher as a guide for individual learning rather than a group leader or class organizer. He pointed to the many imaginative building designs which reflect this concept. Elementary schools are also experimenting with completely flexible program facilities. Such facilities, he stressed, depend upon the use of every type of educational technology. For example, many computer-based experiments currently being conducted concern the operation of modules or units for individual student learning.

One of the most widely used means of providing for individual differences is that of ability grouping. In an article, "Groping with Grouping," Mitchell (190) discussed several problems encountered in grouping attempts. He dealt with with grouping of students primarily within a grade level and among high, medium, and low ability groups. One of the problems is the mechanics of selection. Selection is based on past performance in which the intelligence quotient is considered along with the results of achievement tests. The greatest factor for selection is, however, former teachers' recommendations. The greatest difficulty lies in segregating students in the middle area of ability as students with the greatest or the least pronounced difficulty are more easily selected.

The second problem and perhaps the greatest of all obstacles to overcome in grouping is, Mitchell observed, the branding of the slowest class as mentally deficient children--a group of "dumbbells." Neither the child nor the parent appreciates the stigma. He added that the class of weakest performers is not necessarily a class of low I.Q.; however, most of those with low I.Q.'s seem to fall in this division.

Teachers found a number of advantages to the grouping system. They found that their teaching was not spread over a wide area and that they could much better concentrate on the group's needs. There were fewer jolts experienced by the slow learner, and competition was created in the gifted groups. The slow group, however, often failed to achieve at adequate levels in junior high school, and were left unprepared for high school. The gifted students were prepared to enter high school at an earlier than usual year. An additional problem which was frequently encountered was the shortage of specific materials geared for specific groups. Slow learners, for example, need reading material that is elementary but still maintains interest at their age level.

Dahlen (71) stressed the problem of convincing parents that their child can benefit from special education classes in an article, "How to Sell Parents on Special Education." To say to a parent, "Your child is having serious problems in school and we think he belongs in a special class," is, Dahlen pointed out, one of the most difficult tasks any school staff member has to do. "And often," he continued, "it's even more difficult to make them stick." Nine out of every ten students recommended for special education are identified by the classroom teacher, indicating that parents either are unaware or unwilling to admit that their children should be in special education classes. Thus, the first step is to talk to the parents. This is usually done by the guidance counselor as the parents consider the counselor to be on their side and feel that he has been hired to help the student. Although parental permission is not necessary, it should be obtained prior to testing the student. The school should normally talk with the parents prior to testing, Dahlen suggested, so that the parent can be forewarned of the possible recommendations which may result from the testing. A must in this situation is to talk straight and to give parents the facts.

Dahlen listed the following as key points to emphasize as possible dangers if the student is not placed in a special class:

1. Repeated failures and frustrations are detrimental to the child's development.

2. Schoolwork constantly too difficult causes a lack of interest and dislike for school.

3. A child is likely to be retained several grades as he becomes older and drops out around the age 16.

4. The child who does poorly in school is ostracized by his peers and suffers needlessly.

5. The child in the educable I.Q. range does not learn most of the material presented in a regular class, which results in a waste of his time and the district's tax dollars.

According to Dahlen, the benefits of a special education program include the following:

1. He will be able to achieve well on assignments, which in turn will build his self-confidence.

2. A child who is learning is happier in general and particularly with school.

3. He will not fail and be held back and will pass through school with his peer group.

4. He will be with others of similar ability and will not be forced to compete with those brighter than himself.

The schools must identify individual differences and provide facilities and instructional opportunities to meet individual needs. Yet meeting those special needs does not in any sense mean that students are to be isolated from students whose needs are being met in other ways. Dahlen pointed out that special education pupils are integrated in some of their activities with the other pupils, and therefore are not alienated from the rest of the class. Given proper means of effectively determining proper placement, proper instruction, and a climate which will let the students have healthy estimates of each other, parents will be encouraged "to think objectively about their child and will be more ready to accept the proposed solutions."

Cultural Differences

Children are not uneffected by the changing environment in which they live. The growth of suburbs, the carving of cities into multiple islands by multi-fingered freeways, the dislocations of low income groups by urban renewal all create new problems for the public schools, stated Ravitz (211). He warned of the cultural clash between better-prepared and motivated children and those who are poorly prepared with little educational incentive. He said that this cultural conflict transcends race and that it focuses on those schools in changing areas where it is necessary to try to teach children of sharply different backgrounds and potentials in the same classroom.

To help all of these children, Ravitz felt that extra clerks, teacher-aides, and compassionate and expert counselors are needed. Working with smaller groups of children, screening children more carefully who might have emotional problems and establishing a fair racial and social class balance of students in each school are important steps. Furthermore, staff members must choose their own assignments in a disadvantaged area rather than being placed against their wishes.

Jaffa (147) indicated that the majority of teachers in metropolitan areas have limited familiarity with the class backgrounds of the students with whom they must work. Jaffa concluded that changes in attitude among teachers came not from reading various articles, but came about by discussing together and studying directly the children they were teaching and the homes from which they came.

The principal too must be prepared to encounter students and parents of many cultures. Connelly (60) included the study of the following as important in the preparation of perceptive leaders:

1. The various stages of child growth and development.

2. The effect of social class influences on learning.

3. The underlying causes of human behavior.

4. The history and culture of the various ethnic and racial groups within which his district functions.

5. The nature and function of the many organizations within a community that extend special services to children and their families.

6. The nature of population mobility, social as well as geographical.

7. The new learning materials being developed to assist all children to learn more effectively, including those who do not share the cultural background of the middle-class teacher.

Chapter III

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

Evaluation

Periodic evaluation of the instructional program insures that the needs of the individual student, the community, and the nation are being met by the schools. In the changing community, the new roles which children will be expected to fill when they leave the school evolve rapidly, and the schools cannot be slow to determine the role it must play.

Melby (181) thought that the role of evaluation in improving teachers or teaching lies largely in that evaluation must help everyone to acquire an education with a greater inspirational quality and a new dimension of power. Melby did not regard power in the physical sense, but rather in terms of one's ability and initiative to do many things relative to his own interests and his own abilities.

Melby considered the elementary principal to have a vital role in keeping the quality of education high in light of the problems of Little Rock and Sputnik. Essentially then, human survival depends on education in human values. "Evaluation is thus important in relationship to educational policy. Without it, our policies may be so ill chosen as to be our national undoing."

Edelfelt (87) pointed out that self-evaluation may be forced upon the schools by the accreditation process. Accreditation establishes a floor for standards which signify adequacy rather than excellence. Yet from the impetus of accreditation, productive self-evaluation of the purposes, programs, faculty, library, personnel policies, physical facilities, and other indicators of quality in the schools may be prompted.

Miller (188) noted the importance of maintaining readiness for educational program changes. A variety of interested groups, both academic and social, will be interested in promoting specific change. The school's basic responsibility, he stressed, is to develop the condition or conditions which make change possible and acceptable.

> The American public school has more to biological character. It is a living, growing, social organism. Occasionally, program changes may be accomplished by surgery and drafting, but they will be more regularly accomplished through the school's testing, ingesting, and assimilating the main experiences planned for the educational program.

How will the administrator accomplish that "testing, ingesting, and assimilating" in tomorrow's schools? McNalley (176) suggested that the principals of the 1980's will be called on to utilize techniques of evaluation far more deliberately and consistently than ever before. With few exceptions, he argued, evaluation of the functioning and effectiveness of the educational programs in school building units has been casual at best. In too many schools it has been practically non-existent. With the advent of computers and systems analysis, and vastly increased educational expenditures, there will arise a demand for the establishment and continuous feedback of information on the organizational effectiveness of schools. McNalley pointed out that more rigorous evaluation of new federally financed programs is already being called for and the new electronic marvels hold the promise of making better evaluation and a feasible operation. Thus, McNalley concluded, in the years ahead, principals will become far better acquainted with the skills and strategies of establishing and conducting programs as they continuously evaluate various aspects of school operations.

Personnel Selection and Placement

One of the most important of the administrator's functions is that of staffing his school properly. Many factors determine the success or failure of the principal in adequately gathering an effective group of teachers. Salary, living, and teaching conditions in a metropolitan area which has become the focal point of urban unrest may limit the number of applicants. The nature of the teaching assignment, the need for people of unique educational specialization or special personality traits may also limit applicants. Conversely, a teaching position may be so attractive as to attract hundreds of applicants and from these the principal must make a wise selection. Furthermore, he must appraise carefully those he will recommend for tenure. Those teachers who leave his school must be given letters of recommendation and, which, in fairness to other districts, must be honest appraisals.

Care is necessary not only in the hiring of personnel but also in their assignment. Blake (30) noted that an important consideration in personnel selection is whether or not to accept all the volunteers for a team teaching program who are interested. He stated that indications are that a comprehensive effort should be made to ascertain why a teacher wishes to become a part of the program. What particular individual needs are perceived as being met by the teacher who becomes a part of the team?

Pollenn (205) offered practical advice on faculty analysis in an article, "How to Analyze and Evaluate Your Professional Staff." Three basic procedural steps in this analysis are necessary, said

the author. The first step is the gathering and compiling of information on the district's teachers and the next step is matching that data against what the district considers the ideal staff composition. The final step is the resolution of any discrepancies through recruitment. Such a staff analysis, the author said, can be difficult, but usually once the procedures for a thorough analysis are properly formulated and put into operation, the job is so simple that it can be repeated year after year at a fraction of its original cost. With data processing, the annual audit of the staff can cost as little as $250.

Pollenn suggested that the following questions be asked in making a staff analysis:

1. How many of your elementary school teachers are fluent in foreign languages?

2. How many of the areas of the nation are represented by your faculty in terms of background, training and experience?

3. What is the distribution of staff salaries?

4. What is the average age of your teaching staff? What was it five years ago?

5. How many of your new recruits intend to make a career of teaching as opposed to marriage and motherhood?

6. How many can you expect to move up into administration or to another district?

The author suggested that an elementary school principal must have a basic background related to staff composition, particularly as the six areas above are affected. Without such a background, no purposeful, efficient, or easy recruitment procedures can be established.

The principal must secure an accurate evaluation of the individual teacher's performance. Bradley (36) recognized the necessity of effective evaluation resulting from several new forces. Among these are the increase in public concern for the quality of schools, the emerging consciousness of professional status among teachers and an awareness by staff in the preparing institutions that preparation programs need rejuvenation. Each of these factors places a new emphasis on teacher evaluation, and makes it necessary to (1) establish a common concept of teacher effectiveness, (2) provide detailed information on the quality of instruction provided by the school and by individual teachers.

Miller (188) observed that it was still necessary to make some personal judgments when the time comes for re-election. Established criteria are based upon the quantity or quality of performance in comparison with some other known quantity or quality. After or during the use of the established criteria, Miller said, we still make some judgments of an individual based upon our own preference and biases.

Brown (42), in an article, "Good Judgment is Impersonal Judgment," identified the problems in selecting some subordinates for promotion while passing over others. He emphasized the necessity of applying fair play rules with brutal strictness. The administrator should not expect any merit badges for his judgment, he cautioned, from those who are adversely affected by his decisions. Nevertheless, it is the principal's responsibility to make these judgments when necessary.

A School Management article, "What You Can Learn from Teachers who Quit," expressed the point of view that a teacher's resignation presents the principal with both an opportunity as well as a loss, for often if a principal wishes to really understand what's going on in the district, the best source of candid information may be the teachers who are leaving the district.

In one school district, the person being interviewed (the teacher who is leaving) is asked to respond to eighteen items on a questionnaire. Within these eighteen items, six major areas are probed by the principal making the evaluation: (1) salary schedule; (2) living conditions; (3) personnel; (4) plant and equipment; (5) students; (6) curriculum. From such a confidential terminal questionnaire the principal can expect to do a better job, not only of retaining staff but also of improving the instructional program in areas of potential difficulty.

District policy will frequently influence the principal's staffing procedure. Cronin (63) reported that many elementary school staffs have been strengthened by the addition of subject matter specialists and traveling supervisors in some of the larger school districts. He also noted that principals in some districts have very little to say about which specialists are assigned to their buildings and which teachers are assigned. They have very little voice in the selection of staff members for their own elementary buildings.

Haussler (125), studying the loss of local control in California, pointed out that state laws may influence hiring practices. The California State Legislature passed laws concerning racial and marital status of teachers and then added restrictions relating to membership in employee organizations. Haussler described the attempt to introduce into the state legislature a state-wide

tenure policy which would include counting service in another district in California. He thought there was little possibility, however, of such legislation ultimately requiring the registration of the teacher applicant with the state who could then be sent to a school district to fill a vacancy, regardless of the district's desires.

Slominsky (237) raised the question of how to meet teacher shortages in the New York schools caused by newly scheduled teacher preparation periods. Following union pressure for three or four preparation periods per week for each teacher, many additional teachers had to be hired immediately. This situation created a serious dilemma for principals.

Regardless of the criticisms one hears of letters of recommendations, a study by Berry (26) showed that it is the most valuable source of reliable information about a teacher. Evaluation and recommendation have a dual purpose according to Berry: (1) An instrument to be read and interpreted by the principal for promotion of personnel; (2) An instrument to be written to aid a person to secure a better title or position. The author claimed that writing a letter of this kind is an obligation, not a routine task. A principal must realize that the confidential letters he writes must incorporate the same basic principles that he expects to find in the letters of recommendation he reads. A letter of recommendation must be frank, and it must state the truth and facts about the individual. The author emphasized that the future of other boys and girls in our other schools depends upon the writing of good letters of recommendation.

Lapchick (161) conducted a study of the arguments for and against the autonomous teacher selection by principals in elementary and secondary schools. Though principals felt that the advantages of autonomous selection outweighed the disadvantages, they presented these convincing arguments against such a procedure:

1. There tended to be conflict. Unregulated maneuvering by principals for the cream of the applicant crop could seriously impair interschool cooperation and coordination.

2. There was imbalance. The risk of system-wide imbalances, overloading at one end of the age or experience scales or narrowing the representation of geographic origin or educational background could be increased by principals acting independently of their colleagues.

3. There were politics involved. Bearing full responsibility for a hiring decision, a principal might feel impelled to "protect" a poor selection.

4. A principal with hiring power can sustain a situation that does not serve the best interest of the school system. A principal who feels threatened by new ideas could postpone indefinitely a confrontation with current educational approaches by selecting only tradition-bound teachers. Or, a principal who doubts his leadership ability could defer a test by hiring only those teachers who could fall quickly in line.

Lapchich also reported many arguments which strongly support autonomous teacher selection, some of which are:

1. Insight. The principal is in a position to know better than anyone else the personnel requirements of his particular school.

2. Judgment. Evaluating candidates sharpens a principal's judgment in the area of teacher effectiveness. This judgment, developed by close contact with the classroom situation can enhance the validity of hiring decisions.

3. Professionalism. In an elementary school, the principal-teacher relationship is so close that common sense calls for both parties to enter the arrangement with prior first-hand perception of each other.

4. Involvement. The principal who personally selects a new teacher will have a deep stake in that teacher's future and will devote much energy to the teacher's success.

5. Check. Elementary principals with hiring power would serve as a check on any possible tendency of the central administration to fashion a stereotyped city-wide faculty.

The principal's task is by no means finished once he has found the right teacher for a vacancy. Edelfelt (88) suggested that the principal or the departmental supervisor should assist in the orientation of new teachers in a number of ways. The principal must: (1) Help find ways to organize the teaching force

so that no new teacher assumes a full teaching load immediately; (2) Find effective ways and competent people to help the new teacher learn to teach; (3) Make sure that the status of the beginning professional is clear. He is not the equal of his seasoned mentor, the experienced teacher, but is his colleague and has certain rights and responsibilities which should be recognized; (4) Within existing circumstances, make the pre-tenure period a screening time. Make clear the desired competency of teachers who stay and be sure the school climate supports these expectations; (5) Set up some pilot projects to try the idea of career teacher status. Experimentation would provide a chance to involve both teachers and laymen in developing the idea and to test its validity; (6) Be more careful and deliberate about the initial assignment of teachers and build more flexibility into the way teacher assignments can be shifted during the school year.

Supervision

Bradfield (35) indicated the importance of the role of the principal as supervisor when he stated,

> One of the principal's major functions, whether or not he teaches regularly, is to provide instructional leadership. He is responsible for providing a sound teaching-learning situation so that teachers may instruct to the best of their ability and children may have the best opportunity to learn. This leadership, or supervision, includes the cooperative identification by principal and staff, the planning of supervisory activities on the basis of these problems, and the implementation of the planned activities for the improvement of the teaching-learning situation. The teaching principal must find ways to fulfill his supervisory responsibility if the school is to provide maximum educational opportunities.

Estes (98) suggested that the function of the principal in instructional supervision is becoming more important. "It is changing from that of a keeper of reports, a maker of schedules, an overseer of plant and equipment, and the fellow with the big stick. It is becoming that of instructional leader with administrative ability and knowhow." The principal's major task becomes, he suggested, that of upgrading the factor which most markedly affects the learner.

> Many a principal in an elementary school thought that he was doing a competent job of supervision when he inspected the classrooms; but checking the relative degree of order and neatness in a room is not supervising instruction. Today's principal must stimulate

> in the teacher an attitude of self improvement. He may demonstrate in an area a special competency. He may bring along some colorful books that the hard-to-reach youngster will figuratively devour. He may take over class while the teacher visits and observes an exceptionally effective instructor in his own or another building. These and similar activities have implications for the breadth and scope of the principal's leadership.

Herman (129) stated that,

> Supervision of teachers is one of the prime responsibilities of the school administrator...the literature reveals that most authorities recommend that between 25 and 50 percent of the elementary school principal's work day be devoted to supervision in some form or another. Yet many of the school administrators devote nowhere near this amount of time for supervision and think they are doing well, indeed, if they get into the classroom two or three times a year.

Erickson (95) believed that instructional supervision by the principal becomes less and less defensible in many schools and is probably becoming less necessary. "As school districts become better organized and supported, it should be possible to develop numerous new mechanisms for the improvement of instruction."

The task of instructional supervision as it currently exists is multi-faceted. Bulie (100) saw the school as a projection of the principal's personality. All administrative actions should promote a good learning environment. The principal, he suggested, is responsible for maintaining order, supervising instruction, and working with teachers in developing criteria by which the instructional program may be evaluated. He emphasized that the principal's primary responsibility is seeing that children receive an education which meets their needs.

Cartright (51) noted that an important way for the administrator to improve instruction is to try to influence the teaching-learning process. Here he learns all he can about teaching and learning and shares it with his colleagues. On this level his beliefs and values about children clarify what he really believes about individual differences, self-direction, the unique perceptions of children, participation in decision-making, interaction with people, and problem solving.

Describing an administrator as one who concerns himself with the meaning and purpose of activities in which teachers are engaged, Knezevich (157) saw the administrator helping teachers achieve their objectives in the teaching and learning process. It is his duty to see that what goes on in the classroom and around the school will bring about new values appropriate to the ends of education.

One important aspect of supervision is that of helping new teachers. Edelfelt (88) stated,

> Schools will never be better than the teachers who man them. One of the ways to get better teachers is to make sure the new crop each year gets sufficient time, help, and encouragement so that each new teacher has a chance to develop his own teaching style to a high level of perfection. This is a primary professional obligation for teachers and supervisors. It deserves more attention than it is getting presently.

Miller (188) also stressed the importance of a smooth induction of new members of the staff into the school system. He recommended the development of a brochure of vital statistics and information. There should be an appropriate program for introducing new teachers to district policies. The principal should carefully consider the teaching load of the new teacher.

The principal is further responsible for assisting student teachers. Allen (3) suggested that most writers discussing the functions of the elementary school principal in supervising student teachers find basically three categories of roles: (1) orientation of the student teacher to the local school; (2) facilitation of the student teaching process; and (3) liaison between the local school and the university.

The principal's major responsibility in the orientation of student teachers is to reduce the initial tension and anxiety of the new teacher. To further assist in the orientation process, many principals conduct a guided tour of the building and, in some instances, arrange to take them on a bus tour of the community.

Related to the second role, the facilitation of the student teaching process, Allen suggested,

> When school principals recognize students as teachers and accord them this status in the overall functioning of the school, the students are better able to identify themselves with the role of the teacher.

The third role, the liaison between the local school and the university, the principal can be of help to the college supervisor first of all by making him feel welcome in the building, by introducing him to the supervising teachers and providing him with a reasonably private place for conferences between the college supervisor, the student teacher, and the supervising teacher. Secondly,

> One of the most important liaison functions of the principal is the identification of capable personnel who could function as supervising teachers.

An area of supervision which is hotly debated is that of the evaluation of teachers. Nevertheless, this is presently an important task for the principal as a supervisor of instruction. Enns (91) described teacher evaluation as a complex and difficult process in which the establishment of criteria of effectiveness, the development of valid, reliable instruments and techniques and the assessment of cause and effect is invariably influenced by personal perceptions, biases and interpretations.

He noted that research on teacher effectiveness, which includes thousands of studies, has produced few, if any, facts to guide us. It is doubtful that visits by an inspector have had much effect in improving teaching. If formal evaluation or rating of teachers must take place, it is best performed by supervisors with skills in those particular areas. Thus, Enns concluded we should not thrust the task of teacher evaluation on the principal, for whom the task of organizing and overseeing the operation and development of a school is extensive enough to take all of his time, ability and effort.

Rose (217) noted that many teachers have never had the opportunity to sit down and discuss an evaluation with their supervisors. It is a skill of the administrator to respond to the teacher he is evaluating. Each and every teacher reacts differently, and an administrator must be aware of this and be capable of dealing with the individual differences among teachers.

Lucas (172) suggested that the standards and qualifications for teaching have risen at a phenomenal rate since 1945 and that they will continue to move upward. In the near future, when our elementary schools become staffed with teachers who are specialists in their fields, it will be difficult, if not impossible, for the principal to know as much as teachers about their areas of proficiency. Thus, Lucas stated,

> The good principal has always been an instructional leader, a master teacher. He has always refused to be shackled with administravia. Yet, forces are being raised today to inform us that elementary school faculties of the next decade will be so highly specialized that the principal will not be competent to advise his teachers on instructional matters.

The principal, Lucas believed, must not permit himself to be relegated to his office as an administrator.

> He should be the inspirational and educational leader of his school for both pupils and teachers. They should look forward to his visits to their classrooms. Classroom visits by the principal can do much to help teachers help pupils achieve success in their learning. Classroom visits by the principal can do much to help teachers develop a sense of pride in their teaching and a desire to press on to new achievements and new

> accomplishments. It is the principal's obligation to his pupils and their parents to see to it that they are getting the best. Classroom visits by the principal are really needed to help make this possible.

Malone (177) in an article, "Classroom Visitations--the Heart of Supervision," argued that today's principals have had a hand in shaping the negative attitudes of the teachers toward classroom visitations. Some of the common mistakes which are made include a failure to establish the purpose for visitations and a lack of understanding and conviction about the essentials of complete teaching. The principal has developed a sound foundation for his conviction about what constitutes effective teacher leadership. When he visits a classroom, he looks for evidence for those criteria which suggest that a competent instructional program is being offered. Malone believed that the principal that looks for such evidences requires no apology in modern supervisory practices as this is not inspection.

Herman (129) suggested that there are two basic types of observation, the informal and the more formal observation, and that the elementary principal must become a master of both. The administrator is expected to recognize, maintain and build upon quality teaching. If we are to assume, said Herman, that good teachers can become better teachers, then the principal has the major responsibility of helping to increase their teaching competency.

Gilchrist (110) noted that the principal of the school participates in every stage of the teacher's planning and evaluating and is, therefore, able to appraise the teacher's effectiveness and be of service to him. It is the administrator's responsibility to give leadership to the schools in relationship to the community.

McNally (176) observed that in the emerging scene the principal cannot pretend to be a complete authoritarian and competent in all areas of specialization. Therefore, instead of trying to provide a teacher with supervisory or consultative assistance in which he has only limited capacity, the principal should bring in the specialist who is professionally trained to provide the specific kind of assistance the teacher required.

Classroom teachers and elementary principals recognize the important relationship between resolving instructional difficulties and improving instructional effectiveness. Teachers, stated Pankake (200), view their principal as a possible source of assistance in this endeavor and critically evaluate him in this regard.

Koerner (158) pointed out that there are many things that school administrators can do to reform teacher education but will not demoralize teachers, depress educational quality, or deter any able people from entering training programs. One of these is to avoid eavesdropping on classrooms at will through the school intercom, thereby avoiding becoming the "Orwellian big brother" that violates the work of both teachers and students.

An article "How to Keep Teachers on the Ball" which appeared in School Management (138) suggests facetiously that there is a quick way to update curriculum and improve teaching by firing all teachers within the building who have more than five years of experience. But, it is also suggested, this is impractical and impossible because of tenure laws. Thus, two suggestions are made to help facilitate the elementary principal in keeping teachers "on the ball." (1) Stimulate teachers by getting them to come out of their classrooms and help you run the school district. (2) Blast them out of their apathy and keep them from falling into it by going right into their classrooms, watching them operate, and continually criticizing them with an eye toward improvement.

Schilson (225) examined the controversy over whether the principal can adequately supervise and provide instructional leadership. He quoted Knezevich who stated,

> The principal is a generalist who should not be personally involved in instructional supervision related to curriculum matters, but rather he should delegate such supervisory duties to specialists in given fields because instructional leadership, in a narrow sense of the term, is only one of many responsibilities placed upon the administrators. The attempt to become personally involved in such projects in all but the very small system could precipitate problems in other areas.

Schilson then contrasted this with Kelly's comment,

> The school superintendent, principal, teachers and community school director have a very difficult role to play because they have so many different fields. I can list how a number of them fall short of the ideal that we have set for them primarily because there are gaps in their learning. But if Boards of Education should try to employ specialists to solve all the numerous and varied problems that arise in the school systems, I am inclined to think that this approach would be even more impractical and unproductive of results.

Schilson concluded that the school principal is a professional person who is responsible for providing the correct leadership necessary for developing a superior instructional program. No one would suggest that he should personally direct all activities, but the quality of the educational program depends upon the knowledge and leadership ability of the principal and the specialist which he may be.

Greig (113) took into account the danger of over-supervision when cooperative supervision plans are followed. He noted that, on the other hand, the use of multiple evaluators in the form of cooperative administration might be a safeguard against the erosion of teacher professionalism and morale. In this respect, he argued, the new dimensions of cooperative administration should add to improvement of classroom instruction, which is a significant part of the principal's total responsibility.

While many writers have noted that the principal is not trained to participate in the direct supervision of specialized areas, Curtin (69), however, argued that the principal is well-prepared to assume an active role. He pointed to the background of the elementary principal citing such areas as his four-year undergraduate major, his elementary teaching experience, his graduate training in the areas of curriculum supervision, psychology and administration, and various other experiences that he had had. Curtin raised the question, "If not the principal, who?" He concluded that it must be the principal who initiates and develops innovation in a school and that it is the principal who is, in fact, the instructional leader.

Innovation

A revolution is taking place in the preparation of administrators though many are unaware of it according to Wayson (260). This kind of administrative preparation has upset some well-established notions about schools. Great doubt has been cast upon the length of service and personality traits required for appointment to administrative office. Schools are now studied through the concepts of bureaucracy, the separation of administration and politics has been questioned, and educators have become more aware of their political role. But, Wayson continued, the high value of the new administration is change and innovation.

> Change is seen as imperative if schools are to survive new changes in American society, and it furnishes one of the most compelling arguments for pursuing the new administration. As change seems to require more skillful and effective administration, the central purpose of the new programs is to increase competency in administration.

Principals with innovative staffs, Chesler (54) found, are in tune with their teachers' feelings and values about education and are better informed about their informal relationships. Conversely, principals with less innovative staffs relate more formally with their teachers and fail to consider their values and emotional associations. The data relevant to the second factor suggests, Chesler argued, that principals must act in ways that demonstrate their support of staff inventiveness. The principal who publically supports new classroom practices is more likely to have more innovative

teachers than the one who does not. The principal can influence the peer culture of teachers and in so doing can encourage the desire to support and share new practices. He will want to encourage his staff to develop mutual relationships and a sharing of ideas. He can further encourage inter-communication among staff by working out a written format for identifying and describing new teaching techniques, and by including descriptions and evaluations of such techniques in staff meetings. Chesler concluded, however,

> It is a unique school indeed in which teachers discuss their classroom problems, techniques, and progress with one another and with their principal. In most schools, teachers practice their own methods, rarely hearing, or even caring, if one of their colleagues is experimenting with some new teaching device or technique.

McCarty (175) indicated that unconventional ideas are scarce and that,

> ...since the school is a social system all its own, it is no easy task to look subversively at its patterned ways of operating. Still, we must seek new models and not rely so heavily on the iron law of tradition. Otherwise, the autonomy of the public school may not survive the societal pressures which are beginning to make themselves felt in no uncertain terms.

Bringing in new teachers to a system introduces innovative change to a school. The Instructor suggested that an important step toward innovation would be "the use of the younger and more recently educated teachers to gradually initiate recent methods and techniques."

Curtin (69) emphasized the key role the principal must play in encouraging innovation. He asks the question, "If not the principal, who?" In response to this question he raised several other issues: How are decisions to approach subjects such as team teaching reached in a small school? Who initiates and develops innovation in a school if these are not the responsibilities of the instructional leader, the principal?

A study, "Innovation Related to the Tenure, Succession, and Orientation of the Elementary School Principal," reported by Fleming (103) determined the relationship between selected characteris ics of the elementary principal and the amount of innovation occuring in the building. The study consisted of 500 elementary school principals selected at random from the membership rolls of the Illinois Elementary Principals' Association. The major independent variables included the succession pattern and the reference group orientation of the principal, and his tenure status.

The study led to the following conclusions: (1) Innovation as measured by the checklist of selected elementary practices is not a function of the financial effort of the district. (2) Elementary principals included in the study innovated relatively little during the period of investigation. The mean number of innovations initiated in a single year was 1.39. (3) Elementary principals enjoyed reasonably long tenure. The mean tenure of principals in this study was 8 years. (4) If the elementary principals initiate changes, they will most likely do so during the first few years of the position. The mean number of innovations for short-tenure principals (less than five years) was 1.65 while the long-tenure (more than five years) was 1.18. (5) Elementary principals are promoted largely from within the system. Of the 200 principals included in the study sample, 143 were promoted within the district. (6) Future investigations of innovations should not be limited to a single level of the educational hierarchy of the school system. The innovative processes can be more profitably studied with the more global investigation of the system and employees.

Innovation is to be the keynote to the schools of tommorrow. Ball (12) predicted the characteristics of a hypothetical elementary school in the 1980's. This school will have many "gadget" and program variations, but they will all serve a purpose--to make possible better relationships between teacher and pupil. The school will try to free the teacher of all dull routine jobs, so she may be free for teaching. Teaching will be defined as a process of drawing out; instructing will be the process of pouring in. The program in this school of the 1980's will not be imposed. It will grow out of the teachers concern for finding ways to stay in touch with their pupils.

Ball noted the potential for innovations in equipping schools. The 1980's school will have a learning center with a TV center, electronic teaching machines, language lab equipment, overhead projectors, film strip and slide projectors. A science center will have water, gas, and electricity, and an area for growing plants. The various centers will be such that they can be separated and made larger or smaller by a series of soundproof folding partitions. Classrooms will each have an eight-millimeter movie projector, a TV set, and science corner. Classrooms will be arranged in clusters of three, and there will be doors for direct communication between adjoining rooms. The school will also have a community room, an informal lounge that could accomodate up to a hundred persons. It will be available to the people of the neighborhood all day long.

The school of the 1980's will be staffed differently. Ball predicted that the principal will have two assistants, one in charge of the daytime program for children and the other in charge of the community service program. In addition to regular teachers, there will be apprentice teachers who are students from nearby universities assigned to the building full-time for a half year. There will also be teacher clerks who work not for the administrators in the building, but for the teachers.

Special staff, Ball said, will consist of a physical education teacher, a half-time vocal teacher, a half-time instrumental teacher, an arts and crafts instructor, a librarian, a counselor, and a foreign language instructor. There will also be an educational aids specialist who is in charge of the learning laboratory and a teacher who devotes full time to special programs for gifted children and slow learners. Another teacher will be the family counselor and will help parents develop a home situation that will give the child the best possible learning opportunity. Also on that staff will be a tutor who works with individual children, a full-time school nurse, and a secretary to the principal.

There will be many other innovations, too, Ball predicted. The day will be divided into thirty-minute blocks which can be combined into work periods of 60, 90, or 120 minutes. The regular school will be in session for ten months although there will also be a summer session. The school district will operate a summer camp where projects will emphasize science, physical education, and the arts. The eleventh month will be set aside as an in-service month of committee work. Some of the staff will be away on educational trips. Teachers will be urged to travel every few years to bring back to the school the richness of the world scene.

Innovative efforts are not limited in this hypothetical school to any narrow aspect of education. The basic philosophy, the facilities, scheduling, use of technology, community involvement, and staffing will constantly be reevaluated and changed.

Childress (55) described the emerging concept of the year-round school program. He predicted that by the early 1970's most of the good school systems will have developed a formalized eleven- or twelve-month academic year. School districts, he pointed out, have already developed extensive summer school programs which show that prototypes of the twelve-month academic year are already in existence.

Childress saw an obvious advantage of the year-round school in the increased opportunities for more extensive and more significant educational experiences for children. There would be less pressure on the teacher to cram information into a student and hence the students could participate in various experiences in depth.

Childress argued that a twelve-month school year will afford an opportunity for coordinated educational experience. Under present arrangements, private camps, public recreational programs, park activity and school programs are not coordinated with public school programs.

Childress listed the following as administrative issues or problems which will have to be dealt with in implementing a twelve-month school year:

1) Acceptance by the professional staff of the logic, feasibility, and practicality of the year-round school.

2) Acceptance by the community of the financial obligation inherent in an expanded school year.

3) Provision for time for in-service education and staff.

4) Appropriate handling of vacation periods and absences.

5) Appropriateness of learning facilities.

6) Time provided for regeneration and rejuvenation of faculty.

7) The need for creativity in educational programming to eliminate the current characteristics which seem to have been accepted as educational truths.

8) Interpersonal or interagency problems.

9) Longevity of human contact point.

10) Expansion of curriculum and rules.

11) Maintenance, remodeling, revision of space utilization and other custodial and construction services.

12) The coordination of school program with shorter work year and work week.

Clearly, the principal's role in innovation is an important one. He can develop the climate which encourages or discourages innovation. He can facilitate use of all the resources available to the teachers, and can coordinate a variety of efforts. Experienced teachers and new teachers alike can be encouraged and assisted by the principal. Edelfelt (88) wrote,

> Schools will never be any better than the teachers who man them. One of the ways to get better teachers is to make sure the new crop each year gets sufficient time, help, and encouragement so that each new teacher has a chance to develop his own teaching style to a high level of perfection. This is a primary professional obligation for teachers and supervisors. It deserves more attention than it is getting presently.

In-Service

The role of in-service training programs has become one of vital importance as the schools adjust to the changing needs of society and as research and technology rapidly change teaching methods. Shuster (234) recognized the importance of in-service programs when he asserted,

> The extent to which the American educational reform movement will make inroads in the communities beyond the more favored suburbs will, no doubt, depend upon many factors. Two of these factors are: The kind and quality of preparation of elementary school teachers and principals, and the kind and quality of in-service educational programs.

Shuster described the responsibility of the principal for in-service programming:

> The principal, long recognized as the instructional leader of the school, is the administrator who carries the major responsibility for in-service education for his staff. In establishing in-service education for his staff, however, he should be cognizant of the vast differences in the individuals who compose his teaching staff and the competencies which they possess.

One important value of the in-service program is that it brings to the public schools the other resources of the education community, the consultants, the college and university facilities. Shuster concluded that if the educational reform movement is going to have any significant impact on America's public schools, then it seems imperative that educational leaders, whether they be superintendents, principals, teachers or college professors, be willing to join forces in developing in-service education centers. No school system should be excluded, he said, because it lacks resources or the finest facilities available. The important point is that the public schools and the universities agree to assist each other in developing a new, dynamic, on-going program for the improvement of teacher education and, ultimately, for the expansion of educational opportunities for all children.

Chesler (54) also emphasized the role of the principal and the university in the development of in-service training. He suggested that the principal can collaborate with university projects staff and resource personnel to develop in-service training programs. He can arrange joint meetings with the staff of other schools whose innovative teachers can describe and evaluate new procedures they have tried. If a principal finds that there is little colleague support in his school for innovation, he will want to encourage his staff to develop relationships based on a sharing of ideas. He can let his teachers know that sharing ideas and evaluating one another's practices is the professional thing to do.

Gilchrist (110) suggested that as shortcomings of the instructional process are seen and new emphases are decided upon, these new ideas become the focus of subsequent individual, departmental, school-wide or system-wide study and planning.

> The best in-service education, we believe, occurs when staff members work on program development using multiple resources of professional consultants, lay advisors, and group study and deliberation.

An article in The Instructor, "Principal's Problem: How Does a New Principal Cope with a Built-In Power Structure?" (206) suggested that effective change in attitudes and program must be gradual and must come from the group itself, rather than from the principal's personal zeal or imposed dictates. Thus, the entire staff must be involved in developing plans for in-service training if it is to be effective. Fowlkes (105) pointed out that in some cases staff teams can be developed within the school system itself drawing upon already present specialized skills. This might be especially worthwhile if the colleges or universities which might ordinarily be expected to participate have weak schools of education, ones whose supervisors have very little practice in the profession of teaching themselves.

In-service training programs are as diverse as the educational problems they seek to solve. An appropriate introduction to the value of in-service and one which may help the teacher develop an appreciation of its value is in teacher orientation programs for new teachers. School Management (233) described such a program which helps new teachers to get a new school year off to a fast and effective start. If left to their own devices, the author cautioned, they may fumble and stumble through the first few months wasting precious time. When class starts teachers who have participated in such sessions can concentrate on teaching, not on getting their bearings, and valuable time, perhaps as much as a year, is saved by the thoughtful and judicious use of teacher orientation programs.

Koerner (158) suggested training people in the community to become full-time or part-time teachers.

> Look elsewhere than the customary sources for new teachers. He could look in his own back yard to where he might find people who will remain in the community for a while. It is an unusual community today that does not have many highly educated and strongly motivated parents in it, many of mature years of intellectual accomplishment. Yet it seldom occurs to administrators to turn their expensive and time-consuming recruiting process around and seek out and encourage from their own or neighboring communities well-educated laymen who could be given a special program of refresher and professional work preparatory to full-time or part-time teaching.

Simpson (235) described the principal's role in in-service education in this way:

> The administrator of an individual school is the key person in the in-service program; if he thinks in-service education activities are important and plans wisely for them, the teachers will usually reflect his attitude and interest. Unless the teacher catches the enthusiasm and interest of the principal, no actual changes will occur in instruction because in the final analysis, improvement in the instructional program depends upon the teacher's appreciation for the social significance of teaching and upon his desire to use the most effective classroom procedures.

Communication

A prerequisite for effective innovation and productive evaluation is good communication between the principal and the staff. Surprisingly, the principal and the staff may have different perceptions of the status of such communication lines. Amidon(4) reported the findings from a questionnaire designed to obtain data on (1) principals' perceptions and attitudes as they relate to faculty meetings, and (2) principals' perceptions of how their faculties view principal-teacher relations. The questionnaire was mailed to 92 randomly selected principals and 89 public school teachers in Pennsylvania.

A comparison and analysis of the two sets of data indicated that principals viewed faculty meetings as attractive, free, and productive situations. In contrast, teachers' attitudes toward faculty meetings ranged from negative to neutral. Teachers' attitudes toward inter-personal problems in the school also ranged from neutral to negative, whereas principals' responses tended to be positive.

Erickson (96) identified communication impediments which confront school executives caused by hierarchical structure, channel overloading, ecological factors, and coding discrepancies. Klemer (156) recommended that administrators attempt to understand the human feelings for what they are and examine their own subjective involvement in all situations. An understanding of the underlying concepts involved in inter-personal and inter-group relationships will benefit the entire staff of the school.

Kremer described the following models which he said may be of some help in understanding problems and resolving them: (1) The triangle of problem elements. Organizational conflicts may be regarded in three broad areas. The areas are cultural, group and personal. Generally speaking, people will react according to one of these areas. (2) The force field model. This brings into play the Curt-Lewin quasi-stationary equilibrium model where we have retrained forces being brought up on driving forces and an imbalance of one or the other develops an existing state of change. Most administrators

are classified as change agents of one form or another. (3) The necessity of feedback. What type of an individual are we? Do we encourage or discourage feedbacks? Feedback is necessary for informative data on which administrators base decisions. (4) The persuader-resister situation. The persuader must determine from the outset what are the fundamental areas of agreement and disagreement between himself and a resister.

Certainly feedback is an essential part of effective communication. Rose (217) stated that feedback is a vital factor in the evaluation of teachers. Teachers are very much interested in knowing what is being recorded about them, and a personal conference with the teacher generally will eliminate many of the problems of communication and feedback which many administrators experience.

In coping with a built-in power structure, The Instructor (206) recommended establishing rapport in an instructional environment. The principal must seek the advice and counsel of teachers. He may find that, "The level of discussion and importance of the topics might be of little consequence at the beginning, but a line in method of communication will be established."

The classroom visit by the principal is frequently viewed negatively by the classroom teacher. Malone (177) regarded the visitation not as an inspection but as an opportunity to see evidence that competent instructional programs are being offered. He believed that it is the responsibility of both principals and teachers, although traveling along different courses, to ultimately reach the same destination. It is, he said, the responsibility of both to achieve rapport so as to make maximum learning opportunities available to children.

Open communication between teachers is essential to the development of a sound instructional program. Jaffa (147) stressed that in team teaching, those who experimented with various teaching activities and grouping arrangements designed for specific purposes became a resource unit for other members of the staff. The team made it possible for all teachers in the program to share the strengths of other members of the faculty.

In the program Jaffa described participants held group meetings two or three times a month. These group meetings were limited to the elementary teachers, the school counselor, the principal and vice principal. Seven times a year this group met with a consultant. Their experience was that the greatest lesson taught by this effort was that the members of a teaching staff can learn a great deal from one another if the lines or channels of communication are open and if the ultimate objective of maximum achievement for all children in the school is unanimously recognized.

Not to be overlooked are the lines of communication which must be maintained between pupils and teachers. Miller (188) pointed out the importance of developing an environment where proper relationships between pupils and teachers for effective educational experience is of

utmost importance. Communications, he said, are vital in the development of a climate of concern.

Curriculum Development

New approaches to learning are being made in all of the subject areas as well as new attempts at better organization of resources. The following are only representative of the kind of reporting in the many aspects of curriculum development.

Bach (11), for example, claimed that the principal had to become informed about the art program. He noted that while the classroom art teacher must play a vital role in the development of art education in the school, the principal must also make a considerable effort to fulfill his responsibility in this area. It is first necessary for the principal to increase his own understanding in the area of art education. This, Bach suggested, is by no means an impossible task but it cannot be accomplished simply by taking short courses in art education and attending workshops in art.

Bach recommended that the principal review some of the current literature in the art fields. In this manner he could develop criteria for evaluating art and enlarging his aesthetic background. Another area is his involvement in creative activity. One important function of the principal is to realize the art needs of his staff and provide opportunities for teachers to gain creative experiences in a variety of media and to be exposed to discussions, lectures, and original works of art. Another is that of understanding what facilities and resources need to be provided.

Aftreth (2) described the principal as "the rock who has a role" in the music program. He stated,

> The elementary school principal is in a key position to help make the music program effective in an aesthetic and functional manner. Fundamentally, he must believe in the value of music as it contributes to worthy objectives of education. He must desire to grow musically and he must be willing to vitalize the music education program. His role as a helper to classroom teachers will be most effective as he evidences genuine enthusiasm, sound and democratic organization and as he promotes effective, purposeful aommunication. It is understood that the principal's pulse and procedures will not be applied indiscriminately but will be assessed in terms of the local needs and situations.

Brennan (37) in an article, "Toward Leadership in Elementary Science," indicated that statistics have shown that we have fallen behind in the educational process of educating young people in the areas of

science for the production of scientists for our nation. He listed the following as areas in which the elementary principal can assist in correcting this situation:

1) The assistance in acquiring adequate equipment, that our teachers might teach the course adequately. We need to provide the freedom within the curriculum development and likewise make available to the teacher the vast resources available to her.

2) We need to provide time for science in our schools. We need to be careful and not over-emphasize a particular area, but provide sufficient time to cover the areas necessary.

3) We need to stimulate and maintain interest in the area of science.

In developing and administering a foreign language program in the elementary school, Hamalainen (119) said that the following points must be considered:

1) Preparation of the staff and the community for the program.

2) Scheduling the program.

3) Staffing the program.

4) Providing adequate materials.

5) In-service training.

6) Articulation with the secondary school program.

7) Appraisal of the program.

Hamalainen emphasized the importance of securing the support and understanding of the staff and the community when introducing a foreign language program. To do this he suggested a series of faculty meetings to plan suggestions and to set up committees representing all elements concerned. This activity should take several months in its preliminary stages.

McArthur (173) suggested that there are many ways an elementary school principal might help his teachers develop a mathematics program meaningful to each child and adjusted to his needs and capabilities. He could stimulate interest in both teachers and pupils. He might investigate new mathematical procedures or even set up a method to check the knowledge of the pupils. He might aggravate some members of the staff to get them going. He could cultivate and increase the fund of knowledge and stockpile of resource materials. He could help assimilate facts, materials, and ideas in a useful manner. Finally, he might evaluate the program.

The principal must let the teacher and the pupils know his interest in their work and their programs. McArthur stated,

> The only real conclusion to be drawn is a reiteration that the principal is the key figure in any school. He may provide opportunity or stifle it; he may obtain materials or he may do without them; he may be truly interested in children and their development or he may be indifferent to them. It is his responsibility to improve the instructional program in all areas including mathematics.

In an article for National Elementary Principal Schockley (227) stressed the role of the principal in another area.

> One of the major responsibilities of the elementary school principal is to help create an atmosphere in which a maximum amount of learning can take place. In such an environment, good handwriting is one of the numerous tools which boys and girls need to achieve their desired goals. Both skill and speed with this language arts tool are necessary for effective learning at all ability levels. The principal holds a key position in helping to develop a good handwriting program.

The schools must provide other facilities and services such as the library and the guidance program. Here too, the principal must assert active leadership. Sister Mary Jeanette (236) stated,

> Although the responsibility for the efficient functioning of the high school library program begins with the state and its officers and the board of education and is continued through the local school board, in a last analysis it is on the administrator of the specific school that success or failure depends.

She pointed out that it is the principal's responsibility to establish working relationships between the classroom teachers and the librarian and to see that the librarian has senior teaching status. It is the duty of the principal to keep the librarian informed about educational developments and changing teaching procedures; to clearly establish lines of authority both upon the librarian's staff and with other personnel in the school; to clarify the requirements of each position in the high school library; and to plan schedules that would permit librarians to attend and participate actively in professional meetings.

Periodic evaluations must be conducted by the combined efforts of the staff involving the principal, librarians, teachers and students to check the service level and devise ways of improving the library.

The objectives of the library must always coincide with those of the school. The administrative evaluation, carried on by small committees of teachers and librarians, should be a continuous process.

DeVries (76) suggested that the principal has the paramount role in coordinating and clarifying the various components of the local school guidance program must be in the classroom with the teacher playing the central and critical role, the success of the school's effort depends on comprehensive planning and coordinating. The principal must provide the leadership for the guidance efforts of the school teaching staff and of a team of specialists skilled in diagnostic and therapeutic techniques for educational programming and student adjustment.

The second major role of the principal according to DeVries is the supervisor role. Here some of the principal's specific duties are providing for continuous evaluation and appraisal, assisting and providing curriculum experiences to meet identified needs, and assisting school personnel with specific cases. The third major role is the public relations role. In the public relations role some of the principal's major duties consist of interpreting the guidance program to the community and in the conducting and coordinating of parent and study conferences.

Jaffa (147) emphasized the necessity of in-service staff sessions involving the principal and vice principal when developing new programs. In creating a new program to meet the problems of downtown schools, elementary teachers, the school counselor, the principal and vice principal met two or three times a month over a three-year period. Meetings lasted for two hours and were made possible during the day by using parents as substitute teachers and assigning the non-teaching time of those who were teaching shifts of students.

Then seven times a year this group met with a consultant. They felt that the greatest lesson taught by this effort was that the members of a teaching staff can learn a great deal from one another if the lines or channels of communication are open and the ultimate objective is accepted by all, that is, the maximum achievement for all children in the school.

The principal has an important role in the selection and use of textbooks as tools of learning according to Carlson (50). He sees the role of the principal as one of working with his teachers and educating them. It is suggested that an in-service program be provided by the elementary principal for the teachers. Here the principal is seen as having the responsibility for helping teachers see the importance of careful selection of materials and a further responsibility of setting up a situation in which teachers can work intelligently and creatively toward the selection and use of textbooks and other instructional materials.

To achieve this he must make materials available to the teachers for examination so that selection will reflect familiarity with a wide range of materials. It means giving helpful support to the development of sound criteria for selection, to experimentation with a method for using the materials, and to evaluation of methods and materials as effected in the children's learning period. It also means helping to create a school setting in which it is relatively easy, as well as interesting and valuable, for teachers to exchange ideas about their teaching methods and the ways they use textbooks and other materials of instruction.

Anderson (7) noted that the teaching profession is in a state of increasing open-mindedness about the ways children should be brought together for instructional purposes, and the way schools should make use of the differential talents that reside in the professional staff. He suggested that it is essential that administrators reorganize the staff, if necessary, and remove remaining barriers that keep teachers from collaborating and planning and implementing the new curriculum.

Curriculum development is an area of concern to both educators and the community. Because of this, Ravitz (211) suggested that perhaps one approach to resolving the acute problems of public education is to be found in inviting the participation of both the students and their parents in the actual preparation of the school curriculum.

Again, Curtin's (69) conclusion about the role of the principal in curriculum construction seems appropriate:

> We do not claim that the elementary school principal is a "one-man team," but we do claim that he is a central member of the instructional team. Without his informed leadership, teaching, learning, and curriculum practice will be less effective.

Chapter IV

ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP

Climate

Personal Values

Bartky (19) suggested that educational leadership today is developing into a cult with its own standards of success and its own moral code of behavior. Teachers are inclined to evaluate their leadership in the light of cultural scriptures, and the teachers organizations charge school administrators with unethical conduct if their leadership does not conform to the cult's moral code. The educational leadership cult is group oriented, he said, and it emphasizes group processes. The group must be left free to decide everything by itself and by a process of discussion and consensus. The function of leadership is to serve the needs of the teachers and the leadership cult tends to reduce the leader to the level of the domestic servant.

The literature offers some insight into the standards of success and the moral code of behavior of the educator.

It is immediately evident that education administrators are expected to keep up with their jobs, to be a "constant student of the profession," as Brown (41) said. Brown suggested the following means of studying the profession: (1) Reading books, professional magazines, periodicals, daily papers; (2) Attending national, state, county, city, and local meetings; (3) Visiting schools, theaters, museums, art galleries; (4) Experimenting--little internal studies set up for the purpose of finding answers for little unsolved problems; (5) Participating in workshops and attending summer school.

Brown further described the principal's character and conduct. A principal, he said, must be a man's man. He must never be a panty-waist. He must be a gentleman first, a schoolman second. A principal must formulate worthy ideas of personal and professional conduct which may be summarized by the following:

1. Build an enduring foundation. You cannot be a schoolman or a gentleman part of the time.

2. Be sincere. You must be what you expect your teachers and pupils to be.

3. We need fewer precepts from our administrators, more fine examples. In the future it is well to be remembered that men's esteem is more desired than their applause.

4. Efficiency and general popularity are rarely found together. There are times when you cannot give everyone what he asks. You may have to step on toes.

5. Don't try to go up too fast. In school work, as in all forms of human endeavor, the man who goes up like a rock, comes down equally fast.

Harrison (123) reported a study which identified and defined behavioral characteristics associated with the successful elementary school principal. He concluded that principals with highest ratings and principals with lowest ratings can be differentiated by certain identifiable behavioral characteristics. In general, principals having highest ratings tend to excel in the general field of knowledge as related to education; they not only have more data available, but they put these data to work for them as they do their skills and abilities. Principals having highest ratings have advantages in that they are alert to their environment; they enjoy responding to stimuli; they make appropriate value judgments. The principal who makes every effort to develop a characterization of the self, an individually satisfying and socially useful characterization, will be a principal most in line with the demands of public school superintendents.

Ernatt(97), examining the problems of schools in racially changing communities, emphasized that one of the most critical in-school tasks that the principal has is to develop a satisfactory interpersonal relationship between the students or pupils of the two races. He would have to decide what the school might do to help the children who had previously lived in an all-white community. On the other side, the principal along with his staff, should develop some techniques to help the Negro youngsters in their adjustment to the situation. It is essential that the principal be responsible for seeing that the rest of the school staff accepts and treats all children alike. A staff that would develop double-standards based on racial differences would influence the ability of the children to adjust to others in the classroom.

One of the issues dealing with the administration of elementary schools today is the decreasing number of women principals. Broadhead (40) asked, "Is this because there is a discrimination as administrators or are there mitigating circumstances?" Statistics show that there are presently three male elementary school principals for every two female elementary school principals. In 1928, 55 percent of the principals were women. Today, fewer and fewer women are being attracted to the school principalship. Broadhead pointed out that some of the psychological characteristics of administrators are also the characteristics of women who have a strong need to marry and to become a part of a family; this therefore narrows the market of women who are available for administration. These characteristics included ability to work cooperatively, love of children, flexibility, and open mindedness.

At the same time, few women express an interest in the intern program of administration. Marriage, raising of families, and husbands

changing jobs, create a turnover among women teachers which is not as great among men teachers. The women who have developed into administrators are those individuals who have not left the profession to have their families; they are instead career women who have stayed in the profession over a period of years.

A study reported by Barter (18) about the present status of women in elementary school administration indicated the following: (1) Women teachers were more favorable towards women principals than men teachers were; (2) Teachers with the least or the most teaching experience were more favorable towards women principals than those of other terms of experience; (3) Women interested in the principalship as a career were more favorable towards women principals than women not interested in a career; (4) Men teachers having teaching experience with women principals were more favorable toward them than men having no experience with them. A final conclusion was that the number of women holding administrative positions will decline regardless of attitudes towards women if more women do not prepare themselves for these positions and if the great majority of them continue to reject the principalship as a career.

Hoyle (144) drew the following conclusions from a study of elementary school principals: (1) Female elementary school principals are seen by their staffs as noticing potential problems, and as reviewing results of their actions more often than male elementary principals; (2) Elementary school principals who have more than five years of teaching experience in the elementary schools prior to becoming a principal are seen by their staffs as noticing potential problems, analyzing problems, involving their staffs in the solution of problems, acting on problems, and evaluating the results of their actions on problems, significantly more often than the group of elementary principals with less than six years of elementary teaching experience.

Grieder (114) noted that fear exists in human relations on both the personal and professional planes in most school systems. Principals and superintendents generally deny this because they are not sensitive enough to the realities of the situation. Perhaps, said Grieder, it is inevitable that some tensions and fears will exist in organizations or groups where a few possess authority over others, no matter how much effort is made to establish cordial relations among equals.

To improve what is now, at best, a fearful relationship, Grieder suggested that,

> The best qualified persons should be sought as principals and as teachers. Nothing contributes to a man's sense of security as much as the knowledge of his own competency. A principal unsure of himself can make life hell for teachers.

Greider concluded that a principal unsure of himself is likely to be so timid about freedom and originality and initiative in the classroom that he will stifle teachers and will become a <u>per se</u> dictator, a perfectionist who can't tolerate the slightest deviation from his

concept of a smooth-running, quiet, and spotless school.

Perhaps one of the best ways of evaluating one's own personal values and their appropriateness for the principalship is that suggested by Hoffman (133). An individual should write down a description of how he sees himself as a principal. He or she must be able to visualize the responsibilities he or she will have in the position. One should ask himself questions such as these: (1) Do I accept others' points of view when they differ with mine? (2) Do I show my biases? (3) Do I always have to be right? (4) Am I willing to involve others in planning and policy making?

Style

Each principal must gradually develop his own particular method of dealing with the problems peculiar to his own school, its staff and pupils, the district and the community. Yet although he does indeed develop his own style, there are common patterns of behavior which have been generally identified in successful principals. Training programs attempt to instill awareness, appreciation, and willingness to work in problem areas. Yet in spite of all the research and training, it is still difficult to pin down exactly what it is in the successful principal that differentiates him from his less successful counterpart.

Eriksen (94) reported the following conclusions from a study of morale: (1) Interpersonal administrative morale is situational. Morale was either high or relatively high or low or relatively low in school districts; (2) To a large extent, the superintendent structures the role of the principal. This is a big factor in morale; (3) Where the morale is high or low, it permeates the entire staff; (4) Inasmuch as the principal is closer to the students, teachers, and parents, than any other district administrator, he must play an increasingly important role in policy making; (5) Inasmuch as morale in human relations is the key to administrative success, specific training should be given in interpersonal relationships; (6) Many administrators do not have a comprehensive or broad enough background to cope with morale problems adequately.

Carey (49), describing "the administrator of tomorrow," concluded that the administrator of tomorrow is already in demand today. He emphasized that such administrators must be able to "keep their cool" at all times. They must be mature common objective decision makers. They should be able to receive victory with discretion. When they fight for what they consider to be right they will fight tenaciously, tactfully, and honorably. Administrators, he continued, must be able to plan, organize, and control school activities; they must have good health, good humor, and a reservoir of energy. Strength and energy must be husbanded efficiently and effectively in order to achieve the desired goals set by him and his community.

Many educators have studied these and other aspects of the principal's characteristics. Mason (179) included the following as important characteristics for the elementary principal to possess: (1) Be well informed on current issues in education; (2) Be an expert in getting teachers to work together on common problems; (3) See to it that teachers are freed from the non-professional duties and interruptions that prevent the teacher from getting his maximum effort to teaching; (4) Give help in solving teaching problems; (5) See and use the ideas of teachers; (6) Let teachers know what he expects of them; (7) Keep the entire faculty informed on matters concerning the school; (8) Get along with parents; (9) Get along with children; (10) Help teachers with discipline problems; (11) Maintain loyalty to the teacher in a disagreement between parent and teacher or pupil and teacher; (12) Possess a pleasant personality; (13) Be available for conferences with individual teachers; (14) Follow through on promises made to teachers; (15) Supervise classroom teaching; (16) Respect the opinions of those teachers with whom he differs; (17) Give recognition to a teaching job well done; (18) Develop a school spirit among pupils; (19) Keep parents informed about what is going on in school; (20) Stimulate and encourage professional growth among teachers; (21) See that teachers who are inefficient or not suited for teaching are weeded out before they continue; (22) Demand a high level of performance from all teachers; (23) Take care of the details of the job efficiently and with dispatch.

Connelly (60) listed the qualities which should be looked for in the inter-city school principal. He should be warm, empathetic, emotionally secure, outgoing, optimistic, trusting, fair while firm and generally respectful of all persons. In addition, he should have the ability to inspire others to action while being the hardest worker on the faculty.

Estes (99) noted that good principals have always concerned themselves with the educational program. They have always sought to facilitate learning in the classroom. He stated,

> What qualities does a superintendent expect? What direction should the candidate take? Leadership in any area for any purpose obviously requires personal qualities which enable the individual to get a job done through the cooperative efforts of others; it also implies certain managerial attributes. Instructional leadership requires, in addition, a solid grounding in broad academic areas, in the principles of learning, in methodology, and in child growth and development. Such leadership becomes effective when built upon successful classroom experience and continuing study. A master teacher may not become a good principal, but a principal who is an instructional leader must be a good teacher.

Gross (116) suggested that the principal who minimizes the distinctions of formal status and would deemphasize his superiority to his teachers will find that his teachers will not view him as a representative of the school bureaucracy. At the same time, principals must be on guard equally against over-stressing the professional conception of their role and undervaluating their purely managerial obligations. There should be balance as to the conceptual idea of his role in relation to his teachers.

Kern (152) pointed out that every organization is made up of a minority of autocrats and more than the required majority of bureaucrats. The structure requires this mix, and both the autocrat and bureaucrat resist the delegation of responsibility. To delegate responsibility means to entrust, place confidence in, to rely on, and to depend upon. Kern suggested that failure to delegate stems from procedural, psychological, and organizational barriers. Delegation, however, is a matter of timing and degree. It means getting work done and tasks completed through and with people, and it provides one of the best means for promoting individual growth and development. Delegation, when properly and appropriately done, enhances efficiency and increases productivity. It adds vitality to an organization and encourages involvement of the members. Thus, Kern concluded, true delegation is demanding as well as rewarding; it is difficult, problematical, and rare.

Arkoff (8) reported a study made in regard to the dimensions of leadership behavior. One of the dimensions considered was "consideration" which refers to the activities of theleader which promote harmony and in-group feeling. The second dimension, "initiating structure," refers to leadership activities which point the way toward the goal and mark out the procedures to be used in making progress towards it.

Individuals were asked to describe their ideal leadership, that is, what they should do in each situation. The results show that the individuals in both categories, consideration and initiating structure, had similar conceptions of ideal leadership, but that the consideration group was significantly more homogeneous in its concepts or rather they were more moderate than those of the initiating structure group. The initiating structure group was more extreme; either they expected less structure, complete freedom or little framework, or they recommend a highly organized control situation.

Benben (23) indicated that the key to effective administration can be found in the area of personnel relationships. The job of the administrator is to see that basic human needs are fulfilled and that conflicts are resolved. Four desires which are characteristic of the basic needs are (1) Security; (2) Response; (3) Recognition; and (4) New experience. It is the responsibility of the administrator to develop a climate in which the teachers can develop these experiences and desires. All teachers desire to develop a climate that the greatest amount of security is possible to reduce the frustration and develop conditions that eliminate fear, anxiety and inadequacy.

Teachers, Benben continued, have the feeling for belonging. They want to belong to a group. It is a responsibility of the administrator to establish a climate and initiate friendly contact with members of the staff. He must be pre-informed about the background of each member of his staff so he can make the fullest use of their talents. He must himself become a member of the group. He cannot stand apart and manipulate the group and individuals.

Bowser (33) saw the following as ingredients needed for success in the administrative field: (1) Realization of individual differences; (2) Recognition of the ability within the faculty; (3) Basic organization; (4) Mutual trust; (5) Honesty; (6) Sharing of responsibility and ideas; (7) Decision-making or decision-making process; (8) Foresight on behalf of the administrator and faculty.

Briscoe (39) reported a study to discover how the many facets and functions of supervision shift and change. The study attempted to find out how people primarily assigned to a number of different positions could work together to fulfill their roles and tasks. In this team, a classroom teacher, a curriculum coordinator, a resource teacher, a superintendent and a principal functioned in such a way that an attempt was made to focus upon mutually acceptable ground rules not only for discussion but also for action.

It was the conclusion of the members of the team that it was necessary to trust and support and stimulate each other if action was to take place. They concluded that respect for individual worth tended to encourage creativity and that supervision in general leads to analysis and change in teaching. Self-supervision became a very essential key to the sharing of resources; and some aspects of coordination were essential, not only from the particular standpoint of curriculum coordination, but from the standpoint of coordination of the total effort of the team.

Brown (42) discussed the importance of impersonal judgment. He pointed out that liking your staff is not the same as liking what it does. One of the most fallible blocks to the administrator's good judgment is the failure to maintain an impersonal status staff. The administrator needs to remember, Brown stated, that "good psychological fences make good organizational neighbors." He must be sufficiently aloof within the district to permit him to think and act impersonally. He must be responsive and fair to others so others will not hesitate to report to him and will feel that he has their interest at heart.

Koerner (158) noted that there are many things that school administrators interested in the reform of teacher education can do to avoid demoralizing teachers, depressing educational quality and deterring many able people from entering training programs. For example, he said, school administrators could avoid demeaning both teachers and

students by avoiding mis-assigning teachers, a practice that is difficult to defend. Or the administrator could avoid assigning trivial and degrading non-teaching tasks to his teachers. He could avoid burdening teachers with superfluous paperwork, meaningless committee assignments, obtuse rules and regulations more appropriate to a military than an educational enterprise. He could avoid pressuring his teachers to join professiona organizations he thinks are important. He could avoid harassing teachers who threaten to rock the administrative boat, which may well need rocking. He could avoid intimidating teachers who would like to voice dissenting opinions but who are afraid of administrative reprisal.

Stoops (242) argued that a leader must avoid certain behaviors to maintain the "leader goose position": (1) Never show favoritism; (2) Avoid intimacy. The Oriental philosopher, Laotzu, has said, "A leader is best when people hardly know he exists;" (3) Don't take criticism personally; (4) Accept loneliness; (5) Beware the temptation to exert power; (6) Avoid the temptation to feel tall by cutting down others, much less fellow workers, and much much less, a subordinate staff member.

Principals with innovative staffs, suggested Chesler (54), have been found to be in tune with their teachers' feelings and values about education and better informed about their informal relationships. Conversely, principals with less innovative staffs relate more formally with their teachers and fail to consider their values and emotional associations. The principal who publically supports new classroom practices is more likely to have more innovative teachers than the one who does not.

On the other hand, Culbertson (68) argued that if the principal's role is that of helping others innovate rather than that of making changes himself, then the reasons for this condition need to be probed. Could it be that educational changes take place in a human setting, and that social processes become more crucial than inventive processes? Is the implementation of educational change so dependent upon administrative and supervisory teams that individual administrators do not stand out as innovators? Does the position of the principalship within the organization hierarchy prevent the principal from assuming any aggressive role in change? Could it be in helping others make educational changes the principal is just as ingenious as those who make the changes?

Educational leadership, particularly group dynamics, has become a major area of interest in training programs for the elementary principal. Bartky (19) identified three types of leadership. The first, directive leadership, makes teachers dependent upon the leader and it is possible that one they become accustomed to that state some will learn to contribute effectively. Directive leadership functions in times of urgency or emergency and is also necessary when a teacher is uncooperative and refuses to change his ways.

A second type, permissive leadership, is an advocate of the democratic process whereby teachers participate to a great extent in the administrative decision making. It is assumed, Bartky stated, but not readily demonstrated, that permissive leadership ends in (1) increased teacher identification with the school organization; (2) greater group productivity; (3) increased job satisfaction and teacher morale; (4) greater organizational flexibility; (5) fewer teacher complaints; (6) less hostility, frustration, and aggression. Permissive leadership is not necessarily universally favored because not all teachers are actively seeking the job satisfaction it promises, not all teachers are anxious to participate in school decision making, not all teachers are seeking the psychological rewards promised and not all teachers want to be independent of school administration.

The third type, reality leadership, is developed by evolving extreme positions. Hopefully reality leadership will ask only that we diagnose the whole organization and the teachers and then swing to a directive or permissive leadership as the situation demands.

Bartky listed the following as a hypothesis of a leadership approach: (1) There tends to be a lack of congruity between teachers behavior to satisfy their own needs and the behavior demanded by the school; (2) A lack of congruity can cause conflict and frustration which may end in non-functional and even destructive teacher action; (3) School leadership may avoid this confusion by either directing conformance or by committee reconstructuring of the school organization; (4) If directive leadership does not end in a more desirable behavior, a permissive leadership is called for; (5) The balance between satisfied teacher needs and the school needs is a delicate one.

Schmidt (226) described five ways to use leadership power: (1) The principal decides and tells. This is the extreme form of leader-centered behavior; (2) The principal decides and sells. Those who are to implement the decisions therefore can feel their interests were considered to some extent in the decision making process; (3) The principal makes a tentative decision and tests it. In other words, he approaches his group with a specific proposal for handling some situation before the proposal actually goes into effect; (4) To consult his group. This, Schmidt indicated, brings about greater feelings of group involvement because they have a chance to influence the decision making in the initial stages; (5) The principal may join the group in deciding.

Schmidt further suggested that there are five considerations that relate to the effectiveness of a leader: (1) A leader is flexible rather than rigid; (2) A leader is aware of forces in himself, forces in the group, and forces in the situation; (3) An effective leader keeps in mind the immediate problem and the long range effectiveness of the group; (4) He does not try to avoid responsibility by the simple expedient of involving others in a situation; (5) He makes certain that necessary decisions are made by the group whenever this is feasible.

Lippitt (169) listed the following factors involved in group decision-making process:

1. The clear definition of the problem.
2. A clear understanding of who has the responsibility for the decision.
3. Effective communication for idea production.
4. Appropriate size of group for decision-making.
5. A means for effective testing of different alternatives relative to the problem.
6. A need for building in commitment to the decision.
7. Honest commitment of the leader to the group decision-making process.
8. A need for an agreement on the procedures and methods for decision-making prior to deliberation on the issues.

Brownell (43) noted that there is a tendency among many administrators to want to develop everything into a neat simple package which can be understood and sold to everyone. They believe, he said, in the red, white, and blue brightly covered products which can be immediately recognized and wrapped up in a dramatic argument and securely fastened with a string of legalisms. We must be aware of such simplicity and must be concerned and willing to accept that fact that our position is not quite that clear. He concluded that we are not dealing with production of any particular item, such as business.

Preparation

Across the nation programs for preparation of leaders in school administration vary widely. Certification requirements differ from state to state. In addition to formal academic programs available at graduate schools, many districts have developed internship or apprenticeship programs to develop administrators from the ranks of classroom teachers.

In general, principals have been expected to progress beyond the bachelors degree requirements. Brackett (34) reported that masters degrees were held by 92.5 percent of the principals in Colorado and by 70 percent of the nation's principals. Bryant (45) stated that a majority of the states specify the bachelors degree for the initial credential and the masters degree for the advanced credential. Additional prerequisites for administrative credentials were the possession of a teaching credential and an average of three years of teaching experience.

There is a great deal of disagreement as to what the best program for the preparation of administrators in education might be. Butterweck (46) stated,

> Little has been done to determine what is best in teacher education. We philosophize, we generalize from personal experience, we circulate questionnaires to determine current practice, and we deduce our best from what is, rather from what should be. We assume that what was supposedly good in the past is good for the present. Until more serious efforts are employed on a national scale to find the answers as to the best methods of preparing teachers, the profession must depend on an illogical logic to seek the answer to this all-important question. What is the best way to select and educate teachers for our public schools?

Butterweck also stated that most administrators begin as teachers and develop their attitudes and behavior as individual teachers in the classroom. He maintained that a general education for a period of years prior to the specialization in education would be advantageous for individuals in education. Following the general education, the student can gradually find the avenues of occupational service that seem to offer the possibility of emotional and economic security for himself.

Duehring (81) suggested the following as important questions future administrators need to face: (1) Will tomorrow's administrator be prepared to forge ahead with an instructional program that recognizes sound learning theory? (2) Will he be equipped to deal with larger, more complex school organizations? (3) Will he be able to cope with the problem of extremely fluid populations? (4) Will he know his own goals and values and have the conviction to stand up for them? (5) What are we going to do to help the school administrator take his position objectively among the various conflicting pressures? (6) In what degree is he prepared to face the relationship between public and non-public schools? (7) How many school administrators will be prepared to recognize the social, as well as the intellectual role of public education? (8) How well will the administrator of the future be prepared to provide steady constructive leadership to the school system in the face of the every-changing national scene?

Molinari (192), reporting a study which compared state licensing boards and licensing practices for school administration and seven other professions, noted that in contrast to other professional groups, only a negligible number of educational administration respondents practiced educational administration or held degrees in their professional area. He pointed out that the boards for professional groups tended to be independent bodies empowered to issue licenses. A greater portion of each professional group required that their board candidates meet minimum educational and professional requirements, but this was not true for the educational administration group.

Gross (116) noted that principals undergo a two-phase process of training. The first is the preparatory phase. During that period a principal receives his formal training in an institution of higher learning. Here he is exposed to the skills, knowledge, values and attitudes that professors of education judge to be prerequisites for entrance into the principalship. The second phase involves the training that begins when the individual has acquired an administrative position in a specific school. This phase might be called the phase of organizational reality. He is no longer in a hypothetical classroom situation, but is dealing with the realities of life and the problems of the position. During the preparatory phase, the individual develops to some degree an idealized conception of his role. Gross pointed out, however, that subscribing to such standards is one thing, but conforming to them is another.

Many investigators have attempted to identify areas in which training programs might include course work. Beck (22) identified six major categories of task areas which superintendents and principals should study in their training programs. These included: (1) school-community relations; (2) curriculum development or improvement of instruction; (3) pupil personnel; (4) staff personnel; (5) physical facilities; (6) finance and business.

Beck warned that the educational enterprise is in danger of excess fragmentation because of the over-specialization of tasks. Specialization in itself is not necessarily disadvantageous, he stated, unless the common core of understandings, skills and abilities necessary for successful learning by children in the classroom is overlooked.

To avoid the dangers of specialization and fragmentation, Beck made the following recommendation:

> At the very core, it was seen that all specialists in education would have some knowledge of the nature of the of the child, some understanding of the nature of knowledge, and some competency in analyzing the nature of the societal culture in which we live. We do have a right to expect all specialists in education to have as much knowledge about the nature of the world in which we live as does the well-educated citizen in our society. Further, it would seem minimal that all specialists attain sophistication in the analysis of the educational process and the product, and that they have competent knowledge about the nature of the child, of the learner, that means by which knowledge is transferred in the curriculum, and the nature of the classroom as a social organization, and the purposes for which the formal schooling has been conceived. In the first instance, we are asking for the educated citizen, the educated person; in the second instance we seek the educated educator.

Blocker (32) stressed that the work of the administrator is essentially concerned with the relationship between organizational and personal

needs. Thus, the following are important areas of training: (1) a broadly based liberal education; (2) training in the technologies of the organization he is to administer; (3) some intensive work in the area of the social sciences; (4) at least a year spent in the study of administration as an area of applied science.

Chandler (53) noted that it is reasonable to assume that too many potential school administrators are well trained in the managerial facets of school administration, but most lack the qualities that can be gained by studying the historical, philosophical, sociological, and psychological foundations of education. He made four major observations: (1) Rapid reduction of proliferation of courses is a problem confronting all fields in higher education; (2) Preparation of school administrators should also be the responsibility of the faculties of the sociology, political science, and psychology departments as well as that of the department of education; (3) Faculty members in school administration should exercise leadership in developing leadership in coordinator programs for pre-service and in-service administrators; (4) Few school administrators experience difficulties because they do not possess managerial skills. They do not achieve their potential as educational leaders because they have not had an opportunity to acquire understandings of the foundational fields of education, particularly the social sciences.

Connelly (60) suggests that we should expect the preparation for the principalship to produce men and women who are: (1) perceptive enough to be sharpened by the challenges of leadership; (2) steeped deeply enough in at least one area to be able to comprehend what is meant by excellence in scholarship and to understand readily (a) the various stages of child growth and development; (b) the effect of social class influences on learning; (c) the underlying causes of human behavior; (d) the history and culture of the various ethnic and racial groups within which his district functions; (e) the nature and function of the many organizations within a community that extend special services to children and their families; (f) the nature of population mobility, social as well as geographical; (g) the new learning materials being developed to assist all children to learn more effectively, including those who do not share the cultural background of the middle-class teacher.

Connelly continued,

> The professional preparation of the principal should give him an understanding of theorganization and function of the various types of child and community serving activities, agencies, and leagues. In the larger city he will have many opportunities for interaction with these potential resources for his school.

"Guidelines to Certification of Elementary School Principals" which appeared in National Elementary Principal (74) included the following among the criteria used in appraising institutional programs:

(1) The graduate program of preparation should be designed to make possible comprehensive and balanced total collegiate preparation for the principalship; (2) Programs should incorporate diagnostic procedures so that requirements for individual students can be differentiated with reference to interests and abilities, prior preparation, and experience; (3) Programs should be organized to encourage the interrelationship of the various disciplines, such as sociology, psychology, anthropology, political science, and philosophy; (4) The preparing institutions should have the resources necessary to conduct an adequate program of administrative preparation such as an excellent staff, ample space, secretarial services, instructional resource center, programs of field service and research.

Estes (99) stated that instructional leadership requires a solid background in broad academic areas, in the principles of learning, in methodology, and in child growth and development. Such leadership becomes effective when built upon successful classroom experience and continuing study. Estes concluded, "A master teacher may not become a good principal, but a principal who is an instructional leader must be a good teacher."

Schilson (225) recommended the following program of study:

Administration

- -- Theory, research and practice in educational administration
- -- Seminar problems in administration
- -- The elementary school using simulated materials
- -- Legal aspects of education, review and interpretation of decisions
- -- School of finance

Supervision

- -- Theory, research and practice of supervision
- -- Laboratory in supervision

Curriculum

- -- Theory and research in elementary curriculum development
- -- Laboratory in elemental curriculum development of programs
- -- Teaching methods. Review of the latest techniques in teaching of all subjects in the elementary school with special emphasis on the teaching of reading

Psychological and social foundations

- -- Tests and measurements
- -- Educational psychology
- -- Child psychology
- -- Laboratory in guidance and counseling
- -- Sociology or social foundations of education
- -- Study of human growth and development

Internship in administration

Treacy (250) described topics or areas important to the preparation of elementary school principals in Catholic schools and included: (1) Principal's role in establishing a sound philosophy of education; (2) Knowing the school, the parish, and the community; (3) The principal and planning; (4) The principal and other officials; (5) The principal's role in providing conditions for effective learning; (6) Principles of educational organization and administration; (7) Establishing credit to good teaching; (8) Distribution of principal's time; (9) Helping teachers to meet actual classroom situations; (10) The means of teacher improvement; (11) The principal and the testing program; (12) The principal and teachers; (13) Beginning of the school year; (14) Building and maintaining faculty morale; (15) Personnel policy procedures and services; (16) School plant and equipment; (17) The school and the community; (18) The press and public relations; (19) Mislayings of administrative duties; (20) The principal's office; (21) The characteristics of a good principal; (22) The professional growth of the principal.

A satirical article by Weldy (262) pointed out some of the problems facing the modern principal. Suggested somewhat facetiously, the following education courses nevertheless have their practical points:

Education 506: Everyday Problems of the High School Principal: designed to help the administrator with some specific problems such as techniques for judging haircuts, lowcut jeans, make-up, short skirts, new dance steps. Sequential steps in decision making on problems such as placing classroom furniture, sorting supplies, scheduling faculty meetings, storing lost articles, taking telephone messages, running errands, handling the second class mail, finding the janitor.

Education 508: Fundamentals of Fund Raising: general course to include long-term, short-term fund campaigns, principals and patrons system, ethical consideration of various products which might be sold in the school, techniques of canvassing and solicitation.

Education 521: Research and Rumor Routing: individual research and problems of tracing rumors such as teachers getting fired, romance between people who should know better, girls-in-trouble character slur, and such.

Education 547: Current Problems in Completing Surveys, Questionnaires, and Reports: study of means for improving principal's building skills for filling out questionnaires and reports. Typical state department of education forms are analyzed and criticized.

Education 559: Supervised Reading in Modern School Crime Detection: a planned course of guided individual study and consultation with the instructor, providing opportunities for advanced study in modern juvenile crime analysis and detection. Prerequisites are Methods in Modern School Crime Detection, Problems in Modern School Crime Detection, and Research in Modern School Crime Detection.

Ploghoft (204) reported on a study in which teachers and principals evaluated the preparation of principals. Items of consensus included: (1) supervising and approving teaching of science; (2) organizing, administering and evaluating behavioral records; (3) identifying exceptional pupils and their unique talents and needs; (4) counseling teachers; (5) judging the adequacy of and implementing the use of instructional materials including audio-visual aids; (6) reporting to the superintendent; (7) visiting the classrooms for the purpose of evaluating the learning environment; (8) organizing safety, health, and physical education programs.

Items where the teachers and administrators disagreed included: (1) assigning and coordinating the duties of clerical and custodial personnel; (2) obtaining adequate physical facilities; (3) checking the adequacy of teachers' plans; (4) developing and interpreting school policies; (5) organizing procedures and curricula to meet the needs of the handicapped students.

Robbins (214) reported the following recommendations taken from guidelines which were published by the Department of Elementary School Principals. The program was organized as follows: (1) Pre-service program of preparation should comprise two years of graduate study; (2) Program should include a core course or sequence of courses dealing with learnings that are important for all types of administrative work in schools; (3) Program should include courses and experiences specifically designed for the elementary school principalship; (4) First year of college preparation should consist primarily of experiences generally applicable to all administrative positions, such as the core social and psychological foundations, general education, and some field experience; (5) The second year in the program should include advance specialized courses such as participation in school surveys, apprenticeship and internship, study of special aspects of administration such as law, finance, advanced study of personnel administration, independent study in research; (6) Programs should be planned with scope and sequence and interrelatedness rather than a conglomeration of discrete courses; (7) The first semester should be planned and conducted as an orientation period.

Robinson (215) described a program practiced at the University of Chicago in which the major objective is to seek out young teachers who show promise for administrative work and then guide them into it. The first eleven months will expand residence with their time entirely devoted to scholarly inquiry. Candidates will obtain a general view of educational administration. During this time, they will select at least three courses in the humanities, social sciences, or the natural sciences. Each candidate will be guided in selecting a combination of experiences most meaningful for him. In addition, during this period they will analyze the purposes of administration and theoretical approaches to administration, the development of concepts and practices which are relevant to the principalship. The major feature of the second year is the extensive intern experience, working with a sponsor and principal in an appropriate school setting. In addition

to the intern program, a weekly seminar at the university will be held. At these sessions, practical problems will be studied in the light of theoretical concepts.

Not every investigator has recommended graduate programs as the adequate solution to preparation for administration leadership. Hoyle (144) reported a study of relationships between college preparation programs for elementary school principals and their specific problems in which he found that the elementary principals with fewer graduate courses in elementary education were described by their staffs as engaged more often in problem-and-analysis, group-participation, and administrator-action than the elementary principals with more graduate courses in elementary education.

Perhaps one of the most promising approaches to training new principals can be found in internship or apprenticeship programs which many teacher training institutions and school districts are implementing. Howsam (142) pointed out that most professions have some form of internship or apprenticeship which they follow. Medicine, law, architecture, pharmacy and other professions have developed such programs as have non-professional groups such as carpenters, plumbers, etc. In educational administration there is, he said, a small but growing trend towards some form of internship or experience by the student in the area which he plans to enter.

Hartley (124) pointed out that in one fourth of all the universities in the country which offer programs in educational administration, the internship program has been initiated. The internship program, he maintained, presents an opportunity to integrate academic preparation with professional demands for practical abilities.

A survey of some of the New York state universities indicated that many of them would prefer to have the internship program; the lack of funds, however, was one of the main deterrents. They felt that an excess of $10,000 per intern annually is necessary to maintain an adequate program for the development of educational administrators. Other problems listed by those schools not having internship programs included: (1) lack of full-time students; (2) lack of full-time graduate programs; (3) absence of interest in administration in the locality; (4) lack of local willingness and desirable working situations for an intern; (5) problem of obtaining approval for the proposed program; (6) lack of schools in which to place interns; (7) a reluctance of boards of education in the metropolitan areas to become involved in an internship program.

Kirsch (155) noted that actual jobs done by apprentices include teaching at various levels to get the feel of overall curriculum, assignment to work in the production of programs scheduled for educational television, and acting as representatives of school districts at outside meetings. The apprentice is assigned as an assistant to a principal who is assigned to work with specialized areas of education, as chairman of school committees, as speaker to community committees and as a representative to conferences. He

might prepare articles, brochures, pamphlets related to all phases of education and make visits outside the school system.

Kurtz (159) described a program for training prospective principals in an internship program which consisted of two phases. The first phase was a teaching phase when the intern works with his principal to make himself a more effective teacher and become familiar with some of the basic administrative responsibilities. The second phase deals with the experiences as an administrator during the second year. For a period of twenty days of the second year, usually two or three days at a time, a substitute is hired for the teaching position and the intern takes responsibility as the principal to gain experience which is necessary in developing his competencies in the various departments. A great deal of the intern program develops on the individual's own time. He is required to attend administrative meetings, observe teachers at various grade levels, and represent the school at professional meetings, out of school time. This time is spent without additional pay; the incentive is that he has the opportunity to qualify himself when a new position on the administrative staff is available.

O'Brien (196) suggested that participants in an elementary school administrative development program be given assignments in administrative or supervisory positions in the following categories: (1) Organization administration; (2) Supervision in instructional programs; (3) Pupil personnel services; (4) School-community relations; (5) Professional leadership.

Rudman (220) indicated that an important part of internship programs involves the activities and experiences which concern the following: (1) substitute teachers; (2) resource persons; (3) consultants; (4) work with PTA's, Child Clubs, study clubs; (5) special school committees.

Whether advanced training takes place in the graduate school or through internship or apprenticeship programs, some shift in emphasis is now occurring. Wayson (260), in fact, suggested that a revolution in preparing administrators is very well established but the persons least aware of it may well be the principals in elementary and secondary schools. He stated,

> Graduate programs for principals rarely are integrated programs at all, but tend to be disconnected courses taken part-time; certification requirements are based upon taking courses and not upon participation in coherent programs. Masters degrees for principals cannot be related to any commonly held concept of the principalship. It is difficult to report the status of principals visa ve any existing body of knowledge as it is difficult to say what the principalship is.

Wayson emphasized that the major new value, perhaps, resulting from this revolution is the belief that administration is a process that can be identified, studied, taught, and practiced separate from the technical activities that are being administered. It can therefore be assumed that this process is more uniform than dissimilar in all types of organizations. Thus concepts of administration learned from the study of one type of organization may be applied to others.

Wayson believed that the greatest stimulus for the new administration is change and innovation. He stated,

> Change is seen as imperative if schools are to survive new changes in American society, and it furnishes one of the most compelling arguments for pursuing the new administration. As change seems to require more skillful and effective administration, the central purpose of the new programs is to increase competency in administration.

Wayson concluded,

> The new administration has not established itself so well that it is not criticized. Some professors, practitioners, and professional groups have denounced some or all of its tenets. Despite its claim to more academic respectibility, despite its development of administrators and professors who at least seem to have competency, despite its rapid and phenomenal rise to a most important position in graduate programs, the new administration presently exhibits some deficiencies. Two of its deficiencies of most importance to elementary principals may be briefly stated: (1) it seems to ignore the purposes of education and has not found satisfactory means of enabling administrators to develop comprehensive, valid, consistent, and coherent philosophies of education that can be translated into educational programs; and (2) it has not satisfactorily determined in what ways the functions of administrators at various levels differ. Neither deficiency is new; the old program also failed in these respects.

Wynn (268) stated,

> The mediocrity of programs of preparation comes from the sterility of methods reported. Instruction is classroom bound. Administration is talked about rather than observed, felt, and in these and other ways, actually experienced. Where the student should be 'scared' by exposure to facts of administrative life, he is instead bored by tame second-hand success stories. Where the student should be fattened by a rich diet of

> multi-disciplinary fare, he is starved by the lean offerings of provincial chow.

Wynn recommended a program of simulation, which is the "art of pretending that which is not true." He pointed out that this type of experience is new in the area of administration but has been used for many years in areas such as the Link trainers, football scrimmages, war games and role playing.

Simulated materials in school administration included a 152-page comprehensive survey of the actual but fictionalized school system covering the following: (1) A sociological stldy of the faculty; (2) Personnel records; (3) Chart of class sizes; (4) School directory; (5) Achievement test results; (6) School census report; (7) Staff handbook; (8) Annotated school laws; (9) Statement of policies and bylaws; (10) Motion picture films and a slide film describing the community, the school system, and the elementary school; (11) Several tape recordings extracted from school board meetings, administrative staff meetings, PTA meetings, parent-teacher conferences; (12) Many other artifacts of this school system.

The prospective administrator, Wynn pointed out, is placed into the position in which he will serve in the field of education. He is confronted by a number of situations and a series of in-basket items to which he must react. These are authentic problems covering the realm of conceptual, technical, or human relations problems in administration. Following the experiences of individual interns, the class or workshop reacts to the individual interns' responses.

Wynn saw the following capabilities of the simulation systems (1) The evident face validity of the situation stimulates interest and motivation for learning; (2) Written record of performances results in accumulation of normative data and prevents clinical examination and comparison of on-the-job behavior in identical situations; (3) Simulation permits the learner to profit from mistakes that might be disastrous on the job; (4) The instructor in a simulated situation can provide the subject with concepts, research evidence, models, or other information which he can't always send in during the actual game; (5) Simulation provides an opportunity to see the whole picture to view each problem in broad context; (6) Simulation permits a degree of introspect rarely provided on the real job; (7) It gives an administrator an opportunity to take something back as an in-service program in his own school; (8) Simulation presents an extremely useful research medium, permitting the collection of normative and comparative data on behavior and performance in identical situations.

He pointed out, however, that simulation has the following potential limitations: (1) It depends totally upon the competence of the instructor using it; (2) Materials are expensive to produce and are subject to obsolescence; (3) Considerable uninterrupted time is needed for full comprehension of the background material. (4) There

are questions of transferability of learning from the simulated situation to other situations.

Bardford (15) emphasized another area of importance in the preparation of principals. He suggested that it is absolutely essential that the elementary principal be skilled in the group process not only in the process itself, but in the development of a group climate, and this particular talent requires specialized training. As we learn more about groups and about individual behavior in groups it becomes more and more necessary, Bardord claimed, that the elementary principal become directly involved in his personal training to work with and toward groups. The principal should also provide assistance to his staff so they might be better orientated for the development of the group process.

Trustee (253) described the use of the technique of sensitivity training. During a summer seminar professors and interns were not placed in a typical classroom pattern. They were housed in a fraternity house with common rooms for social and study sessions. Tennis courts, golf course, and squash courts, swimming pool were near by. Distinction between the professors and interns faded. The programs were generally planned by the professors, but following the sensitivity training the interns participated in the final three-week experience of planning and developing the program for the remainder of the session. The technique of reducing usual group restraints so that defining and reaching goals became easier for the group members. The environment encouraged each participant to examine and diagnose ideas and feelings about himself and others and it was necessary to adjust his behavior accordingly.

Ocker (197) reported a study which attempted to determine the nature of the emphasis placed on major phases of educational administration during this century, with particular attention given to shifts in emphasis. The conclusions were: (1) A variety of trends in educational administration as recommended by authorities was evident during this analysis of content; (2) The major recent trend in the content of educational administration is away from trying to give specific answers and towards offering guidelines to the administrator so that he will know how to go about finding answers through theoretical framework of organization; (3) A number of topics had consistent treatment throughout the century in educational administration textbooks.

Perhaps one of the problems in developing adequate administrator training programs, but within the limitations of time, funds, and facilities, is that there is disagreement among elements of the education community as to what the best program is. Maple (178) reported on a study to determine important items in the preparation of elementary school principals from the viewpoint of principals, teachers, superintendents, professors of education, and members of the boards of education of the state of Illinois.

The results of the study show the following conclusions: (1) Principals, teachers, superintendents, and in most cases, board members are concerned with courses in the details of administration; (2) Professors of education consistently attach less importance to specific items of preparation than did other respondents; (3) Board members seem less concerned about cultural areas; (4) There appear to be strong arguments for internship type of preparation for elementary school principals; (5) A careful selection of principal candidates while undergraduates appears necessary to provide the preparation needed; (6) There appears to be a strong argument for a combination of pre-service and in-service training for principals; (7) Curriculum guidance, and test use and interpretations seem to be areas of most importance in principals' education; (8) Experience in the field appears to be necessary before the elementary principal can determine a balanced program of preparation.

Resources

Local communities and school officials can no longer adequately meet the challenges confronting education by themselves. Thus, Rasmussen (209) argued, there is a real need for expert consultative services to help them solve their local educational problems. He points out that consultants are used in medicine, law, government, and engineering. Because the superintendent is the general practitioner specializing in education on the broad level, the community and board cannot expect to employ an expert in all aspects in education.

Principals, teachers, counselors and others have special and specific knowledge which they use for a prescribed area, but these people, because of the pressure of their duties, cannot be expected to keep up to date, particularly from the experimental aspect. Therefore, consultative services are needed for new programs related to the broad goals as well as for experimental purposes. Rasmussen noted also that there is the objectivity provided by the expert who has no vested local interest.

Hoffman (133) in an article, "So Next Year You Will Be a Principal," emphasized that the first thing a new principal should know is where to go for help. These might include, he said, other principals, teachers, superintendents, office personnel, county and state consultants, college faculty members and leaders of professional organizations.

Rasmussen (210) listed the following as the types of problems conducive to consultative services: (1) Problems related to specific subject matter areas; (2) Problems related to total curriculum: (3) Problems related to school plant; (4) Problems related to staffing; (5) Problems related to school district reorganization; (6) Problems related to total school program.

Rasmussen described the following types of consultative services: (1) The expert approach--in which the consultant is charged with studying a specific problem; (2) The expert-professional staff approach--in which the consultant works with the local staff and assists them in their growth; (3) The expert-community approach--in which the consultant works with the community and together they solve the problems.

Colleges and universities provide valuable training, advice, and assistance to the practicing elementary principal. Both the research and instructional facilities of the university can be used by the principal in his attempts to solve school problems.

Colleges and universities play a vital role in providing in-service training. Banta (13) emphasized this role and included the following as part of the criteria for developing an in-service training program for prospective principals: (1) An institution of higher learning should be involved in the planning procedure; (2) Training techniques need to be formulated by the administrative council with the assistance of representatives of the university.

In-Service Training

Through in-service training programs, today's principals have found a good method for keeping up with new developments in every aspect of their jobs. Connelly (60) noted that today's principals require a sustained education in order to be the superb type of professional that all schools require.

Hoffman (134) also stressed the necessity of seeking continuous professional growth. He noted that principals who experience success and satisfaction within their first year of administration continue to search out ways for deepening their understanding and to develop their skill. They value critical appraisal and recognize growth as a continuous process consisting of finding greater depth in a job, learning to delegate some tasks to others, sharing decision-making with the staff, and looking ahead and making sure of decisions on what the problem will be six months or six years in the future.

Many needs can be met through in-service training. A study reported by Paulo (201) indicated that in-service could be of value in the following ways: (1) Both principals and superintendents solved the largest percentage of significant service needs in the area of curriculum development, followed by supervision, pupil personnel, community relations, and administration; (2) Teachers solved the greatest percentage of principal needs in administration, followed by pupil personnel, curriculum development, supervision, and community relations; (3) The five greatest needs identified by principals were skills in the evaluation of personnel, techniques for encouraging experimentation by teachers in newer curriculum practices, a knowledge of the issues of education, skills in organizing time to minimize less essential activities, and knowledge to assist teachers in

providing for individual differences among pupils; (4) District superintendents saw the greatest needs for principals to be skills in organizing to minimize less essential activities, skills in evaluation of personnel, knowledge to assist teachers in providing for individual differences, techniques for observing and holding follow-up critic conferences with teachers, and knowledge of the issues of education; (5) Teachers considered the most important aid to principals to be techniques to help teachers with individual behavior problems, techniques in counseling with students referred for disciplinary reasons, knowledge of legal regulations; knowledge of how to assist teachers with diagnosis, remediation, and evaluation of work with pupils, and understanding necessary to confer with parents about the work, behavior, etc., of the specific pupils.

Banta (13) suggested that no pre-service training should be started in a district until an administrative council has been created, based on a good philosophy of training. He listed the following as a criteria for developing an in-service training program: (1) The pre-service training program for elementary school principals should be a part of the total administrative program for the district; (2) Statements of objectives should be written; (3) An institution of higher learning should be involved in the planning procedure; (4) An evaluative procedure should be developed in terms of the objectives; (5) Training techniques need to be formulated by the administrative council with the assistance of representatives from the university; (6) Training techniques should be geared to the fulfillment of requirements in relation to the objectives; (7) An equitable budget should be developed and submitted; (8) A comprehensive testing program should be used to screen applicants for training; (9) Provisions should be made for training in human relations techniques; (10) Morale factors for the trainees should be considered in making plans for the program.

Thorton (249) suggested that the following approach be used in providing an in-service program for elementary principals: (1) Problems affecting the schools and problems of personal interest to the principal should be carefully stated and considered for in-service work; (2) A pre-school workshop should be planned to determine in-service work for the year; (3) The principal should be given the opportunity to select topics of personal interest and to decide whether they will work as an individual or as a member of a democratically formed group; (4) The participants should determine the goals or objectives, plan of action, resource materials, persons needed, time of meetings, types of activities, and evaluation techniques used. A written description of this should be submitted to the director of elementary schools; (5) The continuous evaluation should be made of the in-service program and a final evaluation period should lead to further studies in areas of interest for each committee and individual. After completion of a study an individual or a group should once again select a problem or area of interest according to the steps previously described. The administrative personnel should continue to study the interests and needs of the principals, as well as the needs of the

school system in an effort to call attention to the problems for possible future in-service work.

In-service training is appropriate for a number of situations, both general and specialized, which principals must face. Levine (166) emphasized the importance of in-service work in preparing administrators to assist the disadvantaged and underprivileged individuals within the inner-city areas. Administrators going into this type of situation need to study the works of sociologists, psychologists, and educators who have advanced their understanding of the meaning of educational disadvantage and what schools can do to compensate for it. A four- or five-week workshop would be advisable for the training of the administrators in developing curriculum for this type of situation. In addition to this, the candidates should receive concrete exposure to effective approaches of teaching at the operating level of the individual classroom.

The understanding of parents for the parental support which is necessary in development of a program for disadvantaged youth is an experience that is difficult to obtain. Thus, Levine continued, a period of four or five weeks would be advisable as a training program where the candidates would gain experience in direct contact with low-income parents in the latter's own environment. Perhaps through assignments as aides to home-school coordinators, work as temporary recruiters, and anti-poverty field stations, such experience could be gained.

In addition to this, three- or four-week workshops should be established to make the potential administrator fully aware of the services which are available to him and the patrons of the district in which he will be working. He should learn and be comfortable in feeling that he can recommend these individuals to the various services which are available to him and to his patrons.

Another type of in-service program involving twenty-five principals, vice-principals, and other administrative staff members was described in an article, "Should This Parent Be Squelched?" (232). Each participant received a variety of formula envelopes, three of which contained problems, and the others containing the weapons--pens, paper, memo pads, and forms. The in-basket problems as they were called, posed a problem in the form of letters addressed to the mythical principal, Mr. Smith. The letters were on different kinds of stationery and were written or typed, had different signatures, and were from different people--parents, teachers, hired instructors, just a great multitude of people and problems.

After each of the participants solved his problems, an open discussion was held about each of the problems and why certain things were done in solving them. During this eight-week session, the participants were forced to reschedule library hours, cope with supply room vandalism, teachers that were going to resign. decide about non-certified

personnel, work as a substitute in a staffing emergency, deal with parents coming in about the food in the cafeteria.

Frequently overlooked is the need for follow-up after the in-service training sessions. Moberly (191) emphasized that there is need for more concentration on the type of experience provided in the on-the-job programs and concomitant follow-up to assure that the experiences are pertinent.

In-service training provides the means for the principal to remain up-to-date, to be aware of research findings and to apply them to his own school. Through the in-service program, Curtin (69) pointed out, the principal is indeed qualified for membership on the instructional team.

Role Identification

The more than forty categories of problems included in this review of the literature are a clear indication of the multitude of roles which the principal undertakes. In many cases each role requires nearly a "new man" with unique personality characteristics and training. The principal would not, for example, use the same techniques in talking with a culturally deprived child that he would apply in working in negotiations between teachers and the school board.

Today's elementary principalship requires ability to successfully fulfill many more roles than was formerly the case. Ranniger (208) noted, for example, that an 1853 description of the principal's job indicated that the principal was originally a teacher who was assigned certain administrative and clerical tasks such as responsibility for supervision of janitors and for keeping attendance records.

Dunworth (83) pointed out that the elementary principal has two roles as seen by the members of his staff: (1) The authoritative figure, disciplinarian, the evaluator; (2) The helper, the stimulator, the encourager or otherwise, the instructional leader. Generally speaking, teachers are somewhat apprehensive about their administrator. Because of his authoritative role, he needs to evaluate, rate, judge, and ultimately decide upon the professional future of each and every teacher. On the other hand, the principal serves as an instructional leader, an aide, that teachers may use in developing change in their techniques and the development and growth within the classroom.

The conflict, Dunworth noted, between the roles of being an administrator or an instructional leader is the principal's dilemma. The key to the principal's dilemma lies in recognizing the implications and impact of each action and in helping others to perceive the role in which the action was taken. The interpretation of the action of the administrator is dependent upon the relationship which has been developed between the administrator and the teacher in relation to his responsibility to the teacher and to the school and to the community.

Bradfield (35) also saw the elementary principal as faced with a dual responsibility: (1) administering the school; (2) providing supervisory leadership. He pointed out that when the principal is also charged with regular classroom teaching duties, his job becomes "well nigh impossible."

Barton (20) suggested that the principal must realize that his duties as a director of learning consist of the leading of people and the management of things, and the principal's office in this respect must be so organized to facilitate and accomodate those things. The elementary principal as a leader of his school is responsible for using those methods of executive leadership which will insure high morale among students, staff and patrons.

As a curriculum coordinator the principal is responsible for the implementation and coordination of district approved programs in his building level. As a supervisor of materials and methods, the elementary school principal helps his teachers plan the kind of educational program needed by all types of learners. As the educational leader for his school and community, the principal interprets the program of the school through many media of communication. To perform these multiple services with the greatest degree of success the principal needs to be in an atmosphere which expresses warmth, friendliness and sincerity. His office must extend beyond the four walls of the cubicle. It is, Barton concluded, whatever and wherever he is.

Harmon (122) argued that it is an absolutely essential matter for principals or superintendents that there be a clear line of delineation between the roles and responsibilities of the school board and the roles and responsibilities of the local school administration, and that the elementary or secondary principal's success can come only once such a measure has been taken.

Bradford (15) stated,

> The principal's function in many ways is like the manager in industry who serves as a "linking pin," to borrow a phrase from the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research. To do this job effectively, he must exert influence both upward to his superiors and downward to his subordinates. The linking pin function required effective group processes because the principal cannot merely link individual subordinates to individual superiors. In a well- working school system, he is a leader of groups composed of subordinates and, at the same time, a member of other groups in which someone higher in the administrative hierarchy is leader. Thus, he links groups together. If he is ineffective as a member or ineffective as a leader, he fails to link these groups adequately. Perhaps this accounts for why segments of school systems sometimes get out of commission or smooth working order.

Anastasioow (5) believes that most school districts want principals to be instructional leaders and select them for this role because of their demonstrated teacher competency, not because of their administrative ability. If the principal is not skilled in allocating, appropriating, signing, releasing, and sharing responsibilities, he may find that the administrative tasks take more time than necessary. Yet if the administrative functions are not performed, the entire organization would collapse. We are told that the school cannot function without an administrator-leader, and demands of the administration are greater or great enough to seduce instructional leaders into a trap from which they may never untangle themselves.

Anastasioow continues, the role of instructional leader is crucial in the school. In his instructional capacity, the elementary school's principal needs to be aware of the nature of and rationale for changes in content and techniques so he can help teachers understand and implement revised courses for study. He must meet with and coordinate the consultants or supervisors who come into his building to assist him and the teachers in achieving their instructional goals. He needs a grasp of all subject matter areas at all grade levels K-6, an understanding of how children learn, skill in recognizing excellence in teaching.

Ranniger (208) reviewed knowledge about elementary school principals job responsibilities and warned of a frequently overlooked role. He noted that from the study of textbooks, school district job descriptions, and state association studies, it is apparent that the professional obligations of principals are mentioned less frequently than other areas of responsibility.

From the myriad roles which today's principal is expected to assume one has become dramatically important--that of facilitating change. Erickson (95) stated,

> Little by little, the idaa will be abandoned that the principal should concentrate on instructional supervision. Eventually he will be free--indeed, expected--to exhibit his talents chiefly by creating and maintaining, through continuous analysis and revision, the best school program that is possible in his community for the student his community must serve. In fulfilling this function, the principal will rely heavily on the participation and advice of specialized persons in the central office, in the universities, in the community, and on his staff, and he will have access to systematic data concerning the effects of existing programs. He will have a budget of his own, and, within broad guidelines, much freedom to allocate funds to different purposes.

Campbell (47) stated,

> My view of the elementary school principal is that he is an administrator who most of the time maintains an organization for established purposes, but who occasionally recognizes the need for modification and is able to generate this change in his organization and make it effective.

Crossfield (66) believed,

> The elementary school principal of the future must have far greater understanding of his community and its people, and he must have better human relation skills for working effectively with community members. Good public relations assume growing significance, especially if conflicts arise and pressure groups seek to attain their own particular goals. Often, however, the ability of the principal to respond to challenges in this area is limited by conditions beyond his control.....the principal of the future will be the chief agent of change in the school. He will be a social worker, a citizenship director, a federal program coordinator, a mass-media expert, and a director of finance--with less time for supervision. He will spend an increasing amount of time with grievance committees and negotiation teams.

Erickson (95) concluded that while these changes will not take place painlessly, he is optimistic enough to believe that the elementary principalship in the United States, far from waning in significance, is destined to be more exciting and pivotal than ever.

Research

Specialization in the field of education has increased as new impetus has been given to research. The increased use of technological advances in education, industry's growing interest in education, increased state and federal involvement, and the increased research activities in many colleges and universities all have helped to immensely broaden the knowledge and the skills of educators. Can the principal be reasonably expected to maintain high level and up-to-date proficiency and understanding in all of the areas of elementary education? Clearly, the answer is no, for the "knowledge explosion" and the consequent need for specialization make thorough knowledge of all aspects of education an impossibility. Administration is itself an area of specialization requiring course work and continuing study in a specific area of concentration.

The principal can, however, become far more actively involved in research than he is now. Indeed, if his school is to meet the

challenge of existing in and serving a changing society, he must initiate important research. Miller (188) pointed out that a basic problem of administration is to encourage the community to evaluate the schools effectively. Some important factors to consider would be: (1) Setting the evaluation to the entire program, rather than having a segmented evaluation; (2) Having a systematized method of collecting the facts and analyzing them rather than making a purely subjective evaluation; (3) Involving the community in such a manner that there is a cross-section representation which would encourage acceptance of the report by the community.

The principal is in the best position to conduct research on his own role in the schools, on management practice, and indeed on the whole spectrum of responsibilities and skills involved in his own job. Barnes (16) suggested,

> It seems clear that there is a need for practitioners of educational administration to become involved in research on the nature of their own jobs, and in so doing utilize some of the theories and methods which have been developed recently.

Barnes suggested areas in which further research opportunities are vital and which may be likely areas for principals to become involved in research.

> Theories and models, useful as they seem for the ordering of thought, must remain speculations unless they are subsequently tested against empirical facts carefully obtained through observation of the behavior of administrators... it is clear that the day is past when administrator training can be based on success stories, exorcism, and perceptive wisdom. It is equally clear that programs based on job analysis, inventories of administrative and supervisory practice, and other status studies of today's operations will not very well prepare the field to meet tomorrow's problems. Rather, empirically tested theories, sharply conceived research projects, and imaginative forethought are needed to throw into relief the educational goals to be served, the values of society to be stressed, and the purposes, processes, and tasks of administration to be encompassed. Also needed is an intelligent overview of administrator preparation which will weld the various parts of that process into a coherent image.

Chapter V

ORGANIZATIONAL TEXTURE

Building Organization

The elementary school principal occupies a strategic position and role in the particular school he administers. This is one of the conclusions of a study made by Christiansen (56). Furthermore, in the cases studied, the principal's strengths became the school strengths, and the principal's weaknesses were reflected in the school's weaknesses.

Organization patterns must attempt therefore to minimize the effects of an administrator's weaknesses and utilize most effectively his strengths. Briscoe (39) described a team approach to supervision to see how people primarily assigned to a number of different positions can best work together to fulfill their roles and tasks. In this team, a classroom teacher, a curriculum coordinator, a resource teacher, a superintendent, and a principal functioned under mutually acceptable ground rules not only for discussion but also for action.

The conclusion of the members of the team was that it was necessary to trust and support and stimulate one another if action was to take place. Self-supervision became very essential, and some aspects of coordination were essential including not only curriculum coordination but also coordination of the total effort of the team.

Campbell (47) also stressed the need for establishing organizational machinery for effective coordination. One of the key obligations of the administrator is, he said, "to coordinate the organization--to coordinate the efforts of the organization, the efforts of the people in it, the programs it undertakes." He pointed out that coordination involves defining tasks or jobs and finding people who can perform the task or the job well. Sometimes coordination also involves seeing that people who can contribute can work together productively and getting rid of people who cannot contribute to the organization. Campbell summed up the roles of the administrator by saying,

> An administrator, then, is a person who organizes the efforts of a group to achieve a purpose. He is in the organization to help clarify purpose, direction and goal. He is in the organization to get programs and people coordinated so that there is a total effort, not merely many individual efforts. And he is in the organization to get the best possible resources he can to permit the organization to perform its function.

The nature of the organizational pattern will vary depending upon the roles, resources, technical problems, and a number of other considerations. Griffiths (115) suggested however, that all administration takes place within the context of an organization, whether it be formal or informal. A formal organization, he said, is a group of individuals who perform distinct, but interrelated and coordinated, functions in order that one or more tasks can be completed. An informal organization is present in every formal organization and is the system of interpersonal relations which effects decisions made in the formal organization. The informal organization is a dynamic structure composed of special interest groups.

Teachers expect to play an important part in decision-making within the school and thus, the schools must be organized to permit that cooperation. This, Campbell (48) pointed out, makes organization of the schools quite different than that of the organization and administration of factories. Factories, he pointed out, have fewer professionals than workmen. In a hospital, for example, doctors and nurses are professionals but practical nurses, nurses aides, and attendants of various kinds are not. In a school, however, teachers and administrative personnel make up two-thirds to three-fourths of all employees. Many are, or at least tend to be, professional in education and outlook. Thus, because personal needs-dispositions are affected by professional values, superior intelligence, and articulate communications, administrators in schools must pay greater attention to personal needs-dispositions than administrators in factories. Conversely, school administrators can rely less on standard operating procedures than administrators in industrial plants do.

One approach to reorganization might be found in that utilized by the Swiss schools. Des Dixon (75) suggested that the office of principal, like that of king, might belong to the past. He pointed out that the schools in Switzerland are run without principals and head masters. Teachers take turns being head teacher. Under such a system, he said, Swiss schools have come to rank with the world's finest. Des Dixon then described how such a system might function in America. The solution to the problems might be the election of a head teacher by a vote of all staff members. Surely, he argued, we can credit our teachers with enough sense to pick suitable people for the job. Each candidate would provide a statement of his qualifications. Elected administrators would hold office for a three-year term. Administrators would teach half a day and perform administrative chores the other half. During the first year his duties would be those of the traditional vice-principal, liaison between administration and students. In his second year he would become dean and spend all of his time on administrative duties. The third year he would become secretary of the administrative committee, keeping the files and acting as liaison between teachers and administration. After the third year he would return to the classroom for a full year before being eligible for another administrative term.

Des Dixon noted several advantages of such a system. He pointed out the democratic aspect; even if one of the members of the administrative committee becomes an autocrat, he can still be outvoted by the other two. Quite likely administrators would try to prove themselves so they may be reelected. General continuity of policy would be maintained because only one member of the administrative triumvirate would retire each year.

Another form of administrative organization is that of "cooperative administration." Greig (113) argued that "the effectiveness of a single principal with his individual perceptions, competencies, and leadership style could be increased through cooperative activities in planning, guiding, and evaluating as a team member." In cooperative administration, two or three principals who have a more or less formal relationship guaranteed by the school's organization work together with the same group of teachers for all or a significant part of the total school time.

Greig suggested that the use of multiple evaluators of teacher performance might be a safeguard against the erosion of teacher professionalism and morale. Furthermore, cooperative administration would make available the viewpoints of several administrators and might give a more accurate picture of staff utilization.

St. Mary (222) said that school administrators have become so bogged down with other responsibilities that they have not had time to do much about the improvement of instruction. The administrative team may be a way to keep instruction a primary concern. St. Mary proposed that all principals and supervisors spend some time in each building in the district. Evaluating teachers, advising on curriculum revisions, and, in some instances, the hiring or releasing of personnel, would become a team function.

District Organization (Policies)

The placement of authority within the district is an issue of concern to all who are involved in public education. In recent years the increased militancy of teachers and teacher organizations, new forms of organizational structure, and the increasingly technical nature of specialized areas in education, have led to this shift in authority. Campbell (48) pointed to the high visibility of public school management. He suggested that when a factory or corporation is examined, particularly in its internal operation management activities are not so noticeable. Thus, the management of the factory has not needed to be particularly sensitive to public opinion. In contrast, the public schools are highly visible to the public and its many and varied interests. Thus, it is important that lines of authority be clear in order to deal with the public effectively.

Berry (27) indicated the following conclusions regarding the placement of authority in school systems: (1) A supervising elementary principal is given very limited control of personnel and exercises little authority pertaining to system-wide responsibilities; (2) The largest number of duties in any category in which the principal exercised authority concerned the pupils within his school; (3) Neither principals nor superintendents recommended a greater degree of authority for placement with a principal alone than is currently exercised; (4) Principals responding as a total group to the category of personnel-recommended shared authority with the central office in interviewing teachers, selecting new teachers for their schools, selecting teachers to be discharged and in selecting a new assistant principal; (6) In the area of instruction, principals shared authority with the central office and in selection of intelligence tests, in determining the time of year for testing, participation in determining class size, time allotments for the program of study, and in developing a cumulative record; (7) Approximately one fourth of the duties did not meet the sixty-six and two thirds percent level of agreement in the placement of authority; (8) The trend of the principal's recommendations indicated a change in the placement with the central office to share authority with the principal; (9) Principals of varied experience, sex, training, size difference in schools did not vary greatly in the placement of authority.

Shedd (230) described the need for decentralization. He suggested that the bureaucracies of the big schools must either transform themselves internally or be dismantled by assault from the outside. Decentralization, he noted, is an attempt to disperse the emphasis as well as the functions and powers of the central office to the individual schools and classrooms. This is done in order to transform the experiences of the school for the thousands of youngsters who reject it.

Shedd also described problems that might arise in decentralization. These include decentralizing certain personnel, operations and powers, and deciding at what level each should be decentralized. He felt that a critical decision was whether or not to loosen the control over budget making and control. He felt that more important than and prior to the previously mentioned problems, is a more fundamental philosophical question: is decentralization merely viewed as a way of increasing efficiency by reducing central overload or is it seen as a way to transform both the system and the process of education which it determines?

Miller (187) in an article, "Power, People, and Principals," pointed out that in discussing school power structures, elementary schools differ so widely that it would be foolish to attempt to make a common description of an elementary school's power structure. It might be a one-room school or it might be a thirty-room school; it might be one of five schools in a district or it might be one of 500 schools in a district. All these things would affect the dimensions of the

power structure which would involve the school's scope of influence and its influences on the community.

Miller noted the reliance upon clearly describing lines of authority and areas of responsibility of the principal when he stated,

> If his authority is only as good as the willingness ond ability of the Central Administration to back him up with force it is not very good. If he rests his case for leadership solely on the legal delegation of power, he will find himself strongest in the areas most expressively spelled out, the routine tasks. He will be weak in areas where his assignment is ambiguous or only implied. He could twist legal authority to grant special favors or to oppose communitive hardships on pupils for the sake of power, but this is unthinkable.

Harmon (122) emphasized the importance of putting all school board policies, rules and regulations, in writing. While the organization, investigation, codifying, and writing process described by Harmon is, as he said, pure blood, sweat, and tears, once it is done, a comprehensive school policy manual makes the business of running the school simpler and smoother and safer. As to the process itself, Harmon said there are no shortcuts, but if it is necessary to start from scratch, there are some specific loopholes that can be located and eliminated.

First, any administrative codification of policies or rules starts with some specific aims. They are first to state the intent of the board and its objectives and to characterize its point of view in every area of school management. Second, the extent to which the board would delegate authority to the administration in every area of school management is defined.

Harmon concluded that this is an absolutely essential matter for principals or superintendents to develop. There must be a clear line of delineation between the roles and responsibilities of the school board and the roles and responsibilities of the local school administration. Any opportunity for the elementary or secondary principal's success is possible only once such a task has been done.

A variety of approaches have been taken in attempts to develop effective lines of communication and authority. Brownell (44) argued that decentralization of administration is one of the major steps that large school systems have taken to bring the school closer to the people and to keep them human. In this respect the city is organized into a number of administrative districts, each with considerable independence in dealing with their local problems.

Hughes (145) in the article, "Cooperative Improvement of School Administration," recommended the development of a Professional

Advisory Council, basically organized to secure the best possible education for students, to promote communication and understanding between the administration and faculty, to augment professional growth, to take under advisement the issues in the system. The organization is to be comprised of teachers representing every school within the district. A representative is elected for every six teachers in any particular school building.

Greig (113) attempted to place the organization of administration in a new perspective and suggested that,

> Cooperative teaching has some valuable lessons for administration and supervision. A rather natural extension of this emerging pattern of staff organization is cooperative administration, in which term we include supervision as well. It might well be argued that the effectiveness of a single principal with his individual perceptions, competencies, and leadership style, could be increased through cooperative activities in planning, guiding, and evaluating as a team member.

By cooperative planning and cooperative administration, Greig meant that the administration would consist of two or three principals who have a more or less formal relationship guaranteed by the organization of the school system. They would work together in such a manner that they could effectively work with the same group of teachers for all or a significant part of the total school time. Greig argued that certain educational objectives can be more readily achieved by a team effort and thus, cooperative administration must not be thought of in isolation from specific goals achievable by collaboration.

The number of schools within the system limits the possibilities for cooperative administration, but even a small system of only two schools can benefit from continuous collaborative activities. Furthermore, the precise role of the principal in this new arrangement cannot be defined. The team structure and the personality of each member of the team will in large measure determine the actual role of each participant.

Anastasioow (5) also recommended the adoption of a program of teaming principals. He proposed that a number of problems inherent in elementary school administration could be alleviated by teaming principals. The close contact with others provides a healthy relationship in which each member of the team contributes his particular strengths and has an opportunity to increase his knowledge in areas in which he is less competent.

Anastasioow suggested that a team of principals be formed for schools of similar size so the team would have comparable administration and instructional problems. The principals selected should have varying backgrounds in subject matter areas and teaching experiences,

with each team member having special talent in at least one of the major content fields taught in the elementary schools.

Cronin (63) described the school system recommended by the Center for Field Studies at Harvard University. Their system would consist of the following bodies:

1. The superintendent cabinet; to provide principals the chance to shape major programs along with the assistant superintendents and other system-wide directors.

2. The personnel council; to provide principals and elected teacher representatives from each school and program area a chance to shape the personnel recruitment selection and in-service training procedures to be administered by the assistant superintendent.

3. The school curriculum proposals; to provide each school with a joint committee with teachers, principals, and community spokesmen to shape curriculum at the school level. School study groups would forward ideas to assist them, ride groups on which employers and other citizens would sit with educators.

4. The budget planning council; to provide a year round forum for principals working with an assistant superintendent to weigh and evaluate various claims for budgetary increase and to begin to apply cost benefits analysis to alternative programs.

Militancy

We live today in a "season of discontent," explained Van Winkle (257) in the article, "What's Behind Teacher Unrest?" In such a climate it is not altogether surprising that teachers and principals have become more militant in their quest for an improved education system.

In "Causes of New Militancy Among Teachers," Stinnett (240) identified three causes of the recent upsurge of teacher aggressiveness. "The first and obvious causal factor is the mounting anger of teachers with economic injustice specifically and with the relative economic neglect of schools generally." Teachers see other national groups fighting for federal appropriations but also fighting against general grants for schools. They see even the most menial laborers being rewarded more than teachers. They also realize that forty percent of the unmarried and up to seventy-five percent of the married male teachers moonlight to make a living, and they resent the public's general rationale for these conditions, that salaries are inadequate but that teachers merely want to "keep up with the Joneses."

"The second causal factor in the upsurge of teacher restiveness is the changed working conditions and the changed fabric of the teaching profession." Among these are "the rapid decrease in the number of school districts and the consequent enlargement of the size of the average district." Larger districts tend to impersonalize staff relations and make communications between administration and staff more difficult. Another change is "the recent and steady increase in the number of young people, especially men, in the teaching force." The new college graduates, Stinnett pointed out, reject the traditional image of the teacher as a timid hired hand. And a third change and "a fact closely allied to the infusion of new blood into the teaching ranks" is "the increasingly higher levels of preparation and, thus, the competence of any given total teaching staff."

Stinnett said a third causal factor "which is obviously at the heart of the new and aggressive climate among teachers, is the hunger to be a real part of a creative enterprise, not cogs in a well-oiled machine." Stinnett saw this as a challenge to administrative leadership. He asked, "How can administrative leadership achieve an effective, constructive relationship among the staff, the administrators, and the school board toward the common goal of better educational services to children?"

Usdan (256) included the eroding of administrative prerogatives by militant teachers' groups as one of the problems confronting school administrators in large city school systems. Taffel (245) suggested that the principal is isolated between two groups, the school board and the teachers. He saw teacher militancy as having drastically altered the role of the principal. Teacher demands were initially for salary increases and other improvements of working conditions, but as they realized their power, teachers began to make demands in areas that have traditionally been within the realm of the principal. And, the school boards have made such concessions to the teachers.

Michael (185) recommended that to meet the problem of teacher dissatisfaction, aggressiveness and militancy, principals should become instructional leaders and act as managers of change. He believed that principals have met the change in their roles with two approaches: the "business as usual" approach or the "setting up a business of our own" approach.

In the "business as usual" approach principals are rapidly losing ground as far as having a voice in and contributing to their school's program is concerned. Teachers are either ignoring principals in their attempt to bypass the superintendent or are including principals in negotiation agreements which severely limit administrative prerogatives within the province of the building administrator.

In the second approach, principals band together to protect their own rights not unlike strong union or teachers' association organizations. Michael pointed out that principals too have become militant and have built up their own organizations in order to have a more effective voice.

The teachers' organizations have perhaps been foremost in promoting teacher militancy. These organizations vary, however, in their approach and the degree of militancy. Slominsky (237) in "Agreement and Some Implications for the New York City Elementary School Principals" quoted Caliguri:

> The modes of behavior of the union and the association were found [to be] in contrast. The association was less vigorous, less salary- and welfare-oriented, more devoted to the good and beautiful, while the union was prone to fight for higher salaries and better teaching conditions with less interests overtly at least in good education.

The teachers' union has been instrumental in actively seeking militant action on the part of teachers. Charles Cogen, President of the American Federation of Teachers confirmed this in a debate presented in School Management (78). He said that the AFT claims credit for the intensity and the extensiveness of the movement not only in collective bargaining but also in the tactics and methods used by the teacher organizations as well. He also explained that these are much different from what they used to be in the "good old days." He noted that we now have demonstrations, picketing, publicity on a large scale, strikes, and sanctions. He indicated that these are things we more or less take for granted these days though they indeed indicate that a revolution of great consequence has occurred.

Referring to administrators, Albert Shanker, President of New York City's teachers' union said, "If they don't have strong organizations of their own, they will get killed every year in negotiations." Michael's (186) reaction to this was that such a "solution" rigidifies and widens the breach between the four major groups concerns: teachers, board members, superintendents, and principals. In this situation, he warned, the students and their parents are caught in the middle.

Unfortunate outcomes can be a result of rigid militancy. A common tactic is that of "cliff-hanging" in negotiations, that is, hanging on until the last day so that the superintendent or board cannot tell whether the schools will open or not. This, Donavan (78) argued, is not a good procedure as it sometimes causes hasty decisions that in themselves are not good for the school district or even for the school teachers.

Van Winkle (257) urged school administrators to use their influence in the direction that militancy takes. They can encourage professionalism or, by supporting the status quo, encourage hard core unionism. He quoted Ronald F. Campbell, dean of the College of Education at the University of Chicago who wrote,

> The increased militancy of teachers could have a positive effect on the status of teachers. It could supplement this growing professionalism by giving teachers more autonomy in the areas of their own competence.

Negotiations

In many districts, the role that the principal is to assume in negotiations is uncertain; is he to represent the interests of the teachers, the school board, or his own? Sound educational goals may sometimes place him in conflict with groups with whom he would rather maintain a climate of cooperation, groups which may be following a short-sighted or self-centered course.

A School and Community article, "Administrators Endorse Professional Negotiations, Sanctions, Signs of Maturing Profession," (1) discusses the fact that the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) has endorsed the right of classroom teachers and other professional staff employees to have a voice in formulating educational policy and to invoke sanctions on districts in which serious educational problems develop.

They define professional negotiations as a process, written, formalized, and agreed to by the Board of Education and a teachers' organization. It is also described as a setting for both parties to discuss through their designated representatives questions relating to the conditions of work and such other matters that may be mutually agreed upon.

The AASA feels that this is an orderly step toward democratic school administration and that if teachers are competent to teach the nation's children, they are also competent to have a meaningful role in the planning of the educational programs for the children they are teaching. The AASA takes a broad view of policy matters which could be negotiated. They feel that negotiations might encompass all or some of the aspects of policies governing such items as curriculum, in-service education, personnel policies, teaching assignments, transfers and promotions, recruitment of teachers, discharge and discipline of teachers, grievance procedures, recognition of negotiating team, salaries and wages, welfare benefits, class size, leaves of absence, and others.

A debate appearing in School Management (78) presented four views of the problem in the article "Collective Bargaining vs. Professional Negotiations." Speaking for management, Bernard E. Donovan emphasized that negotiations are here to stay and must be accepted. He emphasized that only the teachers should organize into unions or professional groups. If one locality chooses to organize professionally and another locality chooses to join a union, this is their decision. But no matter what the type of organization, problems will still have to be resolved through negotiation.

One of the problems inherent in the negotiations process, Donovan observed is that it is time-consuming. Negotiations in New York City, he pointed out, involved fifty-four sessions between March and June, each session lasting three or four hours. It is difficult for the superintendent to give that much time to negotiating and still operate a school system of that size.

Donovan also posed the question of the right of the public in the matter of teacher negotiations. He noted that teachers and board or representatives of the board discuss ways of using up the budget and then the public comes into the board meeting and asks, "What about maintenance, what about textbooks, what about transportation, what about innovative programs, and where are we going to get money for this type of thing?" He felt it is very difficult for the superintendent of the board to indicate to these people that the bulk of the funds has been extended and this leaves very little to finance such activities. He concluded by stating that he felt the school districts have to set up more effective negotiation processes. He further indicated that the first allegience is not to the teachers but to the students themselves.

Speaking for the mediators, Arvid Anderson, Commissioner of the Wisconsin Employment Relations Board, described the professional negotiation table as having four legs, the first being wages or salaries as well as the other economic benefits that go with it, such as holiday pay, insurance or an insurance program. The second leg consists of seniority and the assurance that salaries will continue to be enjoyed by those who have worked for them. This, he said, we call tenure in education rather than seniority. They third leg is grievance arbitration. When the employee complains about terms and conditions of employment he includes such things as teaching assignments, transfer requests, and promotions. The last leg of the table is what Anderson called union security. This is the assurance that the employee organizations which negotiated the contract will be able to continue representing on behalf of their organization.

Anderson also discussed the problem of including school administrators in the same organizations as the teachers. He indicated that this standing in the middle of the road situation in which the superintendent would belong to the professional organization of the teachers as well as representing the school board is hazardous. People who stand in the middle of the road, he said, usually get run over in the long run.

Speaking for collective bargaining, Charles Cogen stated that as much as people may like the administrators as individuals, they do not belong together with teachers in the same bargaining unit. He stressed that the teachers are one part of the unit and the administrators are the other part of the unit representing the board.

Arnold W. Wolpert, speaking for professional negotiations in the debate, commented,

> The day when the superintendent was an oracle has long since passed. Today the wisest decisions will be made on the involvement of the maximum number of the professional and new project situations with the representatives of the public...the chief role of the superintendent is to see that the conditions exist so this can be done and to serve as the agent, or catalyst to see that it gets done most effectively.

As legislatures come to grips with the problems of negotiations, they are forced to arrive at policy determinations which can profoundly effect the nature and direction of negotiations. Barstow (17), examining Michigan negotiations laws, found that they were "labor-oriented" while those of Connecticut were professionally-oriented.

He noted some of the provisions of the Connecticut legislation which distinguished it as professionally oriented. The act applies solely to teachers and boards of education, purposely excluding other public employees. The view was that only those laws can be effective which are directed to educational concerns when collective bargaining is the issue. Non-educational interests, he argued, only contaminate school problems. Therefore, legislation for educators should operate within, and not outside of the state structure for education.

Michael (186) suggested that an alternative to negotiations or collective bargaining is collaborative leadership. K. J. Dunn and R. L. Stafford, in "Collaborative Leadership for School Systems," defined this as "the process of intergroup interaction and involvement whereby representatives of the educational hierarchy cooperatively accept the responsibility for policy and program decisions, thereby producing an integrated power-equalization structure." In this "power-equalization" model all problems and decisions are designed and implemented by teachers, board members, superintendents, and principals.

Taffel (245) pointed out that negotiations have certainly brought about needed benefits for the teachers and have improved teacher morale and self-image and have stimulated a renewal of interest in the teaching profession. At the same time, a militant teacher ideology produced a separation between the principal and his staff. The principal was looked upon as a "boss" and friendly professionalism was replaced with a more formal and impersonal relationship with the local union chapter.

He described steps supervisors and principals took in New York in self-defense against the steady erosion of their powers. Organizing a supervisory organization recognized by the school board, the Council of Supervisory Associations (CSA) had the power to represent all supervisors in negotiations with the school board.

The CSA is a federation of fourteen organizations of supervisors including principals of elementary, intermediate, and secondary schools as well as superintendents, guidance supervisors, department chairmen, and assistant principals. One of the organization's early victories was the passage of a law in the New York legislature which established an index fixing the relationship between teachers' and supervisors' salaries. The index law requires a proportional increase in supervisors' salaries whenever teachers receive a salary increase.

Taffel pointed out that it took time for the Board of Education to accept the CSA as a negotiating agent for supervisors, but today the

concept is fully accepted. He concluded that principals welcome the increasing interest and participation of teachers, but insist on retaining appropriate powers to accompany their responsibilities for their schools. They must, he said, be able to negotiate directly with the Board on all conditions and policies that affect them, and to do this they must form forceful negotiating units.

Epstein (92) described an agreement between the Board of Education at New Rochelle, New York, and the New Rochelle Teachers Association in which the board accepted the association as the exclusive representative of all professional personnel "but excluding administrative and supervisory employees." This excluded not only the superintendent and his immediate staff but also the principals and assistant principals.

But principals want to be part of negotiations. Epstein (93) in another article, "Why Principals Want to Negotiate for Themselves," points out that in most localities there is no involvement of the principals in the decisive phases of agreement-writing. Teacher organizations do not want them to be part of negotiations, and school boards find it expedient to yield and keep principals away.

In some localities principals are invited by superintendents and school boards to serve as consultants or participants in the administrative team. These invitations are the results of the realization that when principals are excluded from negotiations there may emerge some compromise which, while relieving school boards of threats of drastic teacher actions, may adversely affect the daily operations of schools. Thus, some principals, especially those in larger school systems, have begun to discuss and request negotiating privileges for themselves and, in some cases, written agreements to protect their own status.

Cronin (63) indicated that a few superintendents are making sure that principals fit in with the director of personnel on the school board negotiating team rather than having them involved with the team representing the teachers. In some cases principals have been left out completely as far as representing either the board or the teachers.

He suggested that it is becoming increasingly clear that the superintendents of schools speak primarily for the school boards and for the community when at the bargaining table. The teachers insist upon the right to choose their own spokesman and rarely will this person be the superintendent himself. Cronin feels that in bargaining for their own salaries and related conditions of importance, principals should form a separate alliance with other supervisory and administrative personnel.

Stinnett (240), after examining reasons for the recent upsurge in teacher aggressiveness, noted that Dr. John H. Fischer, President of Columbia University Teachers College, suggested two alternatives

in teacher-school board relationships: (1) a typical employee-employer relationship in which production efficiency is emphasized; (2) a unique situation in which a body of licensed professionals participate with the agency that hired them to arrive at mutually agreeable understandings of salaries, administrations, etc.

The second alternative, that of viewing the teacher as a professional first, an employee second, implies the desire to utilize his abilities through participation in decision-making. This, Stinnett pointed out, depends on the quality of administrative leadership.

Stinnett quoted an excerpt of a policy statement by the American Association of School Administrators:

> Creating and sustaining a professional climate and operational procedures that call forth and use the full creative capacities of all employees in the attainment of educational goals is the prime responsibility of school administration...the job is better done when the individuals who are directly involved in any common endeavor participate freely in setting goals...this is the kind of school personnel administration that thoughtful people speak.

Stinnett concluded that what is involved for the future is the need to move teaching to a professional status or to give in to the fight by organized labor to enlist teachers in a close alliance with organized laborers.

Van Winkle (257) reached a similar conclusion, stating that school administrators can have a great influence in the direction that militancy takes. They can encourage professionalism or, by supporting the status quo, encourage hard core unionism.

An article for School & Community, "Administrators Endorse Professional Negotiations, Sanctions, Signs of Maturing Profession," (1) points out that the American Association of School Administrators does not condone teacher strikes under any conditions. They do support various types of sanctions, however. They describe sanctions as being a procedure worthy of a true profession and that when they are applied on a responsible and professional basis with ample warning, they can be a very powerful tool for the resolving of serious educational problems.

Five types of sanctions were identified which have been used on numerous occasions in the past few years and have been used with a high degree of success:

1. To censure through public notice, including the release of investigation reports, articles in national and state journals, and reports through various communication media.

2. Notification to state departments of education of findings concerning unsatisfactory conditions.

3. Notification to certification of placement services of unsatisfactory conditions of employment for educators.

4. Warning to members that acceptance of employment as a new teacher in a school district would be considered unethical conduct and could lead to discharge or refusal of membership in the national professional association.

5. Advice to members presently employed that if their private arrangements permit they should seek employment elsewhere.

The "MSBA-MSTA Policies on Teacher, Administrator, & School Board Relationships" (189) reported the following basic principles concerning teachers, administrators, and school board relations:

1. The board of education, administrators, and teachers all have the same ultimate aim, that of providing for the best possible educational program.

2. In a democratic society the final authority rests with the people and the board, the administrators, and the teachers have a joint responsibility in maintaining favorable public opinion toward education in the community.

3. A board of education, as a trustee of the people, is responsible for creating a climate within the school system which will enable administration and teachers to implement and approve the school program, and that they can do this by having written policies including those which govern professional relationships.

4. The chief school administrator, the superintendent, is expected to know the problems and thinking of both the teachers and the school board and to advise each to help them achieve mutual understanding.

5. Teachers have the responsibility of being aware of the total educational needs and problems in the community and they should actively cooperate in efforts to improve the school program for all children.

6. All have the right and the opportunity to participate in the formulation of policies of the district and the conditions of employment or service. All have the right to make recommendations or to react to policy proposals before they are adopted. Legally, however, only the school board of education can determine the policies.

7. The board, the administrators, and the teachers have the obligation to engage in joint study and deliberation to strive in good faith to reach mutual agreements.

8. Teachers have the right to express their views to the board and administrators through the elected teacher representative.

9. Teachers have the obligation of justifying their proposals and as they are considering proposals to think of their effect upon the total education program.

10. Every teacher should keep himself informed on the issues and help his representative reach responsible decisions. The teacher has an obligation to participate in the election of the best possible professional representatives who will work with the administration and the board.

Administrative Employment Practices

The complex demands made upon public school administrators require them to be well-prepared academically and uniquely fitted in terms of their personality, leadership ability, and experience. According to Read (212), many boards of education, wishing to make administrative appointments on the basis of political expediency, delegate this responsibility to the superintendent of schools; this is in keeping with the accepted policy of using trained professional leadership. Unfortunately a superintendent's judgment is not infallible. Read felt that it would be best to give consideration to all the opinions and feelings of those affected by the appointment. These would include the parents, the teaching staff, the administrators, and the board of education. Each of these groups would appoint a representative to serve as the group's respresentative on an advisory committee which would assist the superintendent in making the appointment.

This committee would establish a guide for use in interviewing applicants which might include the following criteria: (1) work with other people; (2) sense of humor; (3) enthusiasm about education; (4) personal appearance; (5) self-confidence; (6) voice; (7) personal warmth; (8) attitudes toward morality; (9) how children would react to him; (10) how teachers would react; (11) how parents would react; (12) how effectively candidate might work in the community; and (13) soundness of approach to school administration.

Upon completion of interviews the committee would select the five top-ranked candidates. The committee would then make a thorough study of each candidate's background and would select two of the five for referral to the superintendent for his decision.

An article for School Management, "How to Take the Guesswork Out of Choosing a Principal" (140) described a rating sheet developed

in Redwood City, California. The points which were listed on the guideline were (1) Personal appearance; (2) Verbal expression; (3) Judgment; (4) Attitude toward position; (5) Intelligence; (6) Attitude of self; (7) Professional efficiency. A written examination designed to measure knowledge of school administration, local affairs, and ability to function under pressure was also included.

The Redwood City district developed the following guidelines for evaluating candidates: (1) Do not compare one candidate with another, merely rate the candidate as an individual; (2) Rate each candidate on each of the seven items in the interview sheet; (3) It is probably best to score the items on the basis of your first opinion; (4) It does not matter if more than one candidate has the same score; (5) Persons on the interview team should study his rating form in advance and try to have in mind some questions which when asked will reveal abilities and characteristics to be rated.

Lipsett (170) suggested securing information about a candidate's drive by studying early goal identification, work while in school and extra-curricular activities. One can secure information about intellectual ability by examining academic performance, use of English, leisure activities, and by administering tests. Leadership potential can be assessed by studying work in school groups, family placement, marriage record, and relations with spouse. Organizational ability can be studied by examining records in organizations. Initiative can be examined by studying the extent of self-starting, invention, and innovation.

Rosenberg (218), in a study titled "The Evaluation of a School Principal: An Exploratory Study in the Development of a Procedure and Instrument for a Performance Review" reported the following:

1. It appears from this exploratory investigation that a useful program for the evaluation of school principals can be developed.

2. It appears that, with the evaluation program developed in this investigation, significant conclusions can be drawn concerning the quality of a principal's performance.

3. More research is necessary before the programs for the evaluation of school principals can be developed beyond the primary stage.

4. Because of the number and nature of the problems involved, it doesn't appear that a final and perfected evaluation system for principals or for other administrators can be anticipated in the near future.

Rudman (220) made the following suggestions for locating and selecting education leaders. He indicated that there are five points to use as a basic framework:

1. Follow a careful recruiting and selecting pattern.
2. Set up a list of realistic leadership qualities.
3. Place an appropriate value on certification.
4. Give sufficient way to the different types of preparation experience.
5. Make use of the sources of the varying educational agencies.

Rudman stated that at the local school level we need to select and identify individuals with leadership ability. Professional or personnel folders need to be kept on these individuals with evaluations by the curriculum directors and supervisors, superintendents and principals at various intervals, to develop a history of the leadership potential in the individual.

Kurtz (159) pointed out that there are three basic ways a district may decide to find a new administrator: (1) You may wait until you have the position to fill and then offer higher salaries to qualified principals; (2) You can decide to promote a teacher when the time comes and let him break in during his first year as a principal; (3) You can start to train prospective principals in an internship program within your district.

O'Brien (196) described another program to develop leadership within a Los Angeles elementary school district. Teachers who have achieved permanent status in the district and have obtained a masters degree or administrative credentials are eligible for this program. They work as trainees and receive: (1) Teaching experience in at least two grade levels; (2) Teaching experience in at least one additional area such as work with gifted or mentally retarded pupils; (3) Experiences in two types of school communities, the poor or possibly disadvantaged, the average or high socio-economic areas. Participants are given assignments in administrative or supervisory positions in the schools. These experiences fall in the following categories: (1) Organization administration; (2) Supervision in instructional programs; (3) Pupil personnel services; (4) School-community relations; (5) Professional leadership.

O'Brien further stated that the individuals involved in this program feel that this experience gives them an opportunity to analyze more clearly their potential or lack of it for leadership in today's elementary schools. It provides them with a rich background of experiences and understandings and skills which are vital in their future administrative careers.

Gordon (112) argued that as greater competition is created for the elementary principalship, there will be an advance in the elementary principal's professional status. She pointed out that there presently appears to be a fear that out-of-district administrators will not be adequately acquainted with the system's policies.

A study by Gross (116) reported on the executive professional leadership (EPL), that is, the behavior of a principal that can be viewed as his efforts to conform through a definition of his role which stresses his obligation to improve the quality of teacher performance. In the research, it was found that the previous administrative experiences had very little to do with the EPL of the principal. It was also found that the educational preparation, particularly in the areas of graduate courses in educational administration, was negatively related to EPL and that the trend of the relationship between two other indices, undergraduate and graduate courses in education, and EPL was also negative.

In relation to age it was found that a principal going into his first principalship at the late age of 45 years or older exhibited the weakest professional leadership, while those appointed between the ages of 36 and 40 exhibited the strongest. The mean EPL score of the last group, however, was only slightly higher than that of principals who had obtained their administrative positions when they were 30 or younger. Therefore, Gross concluded, appointing teachers who are beyond the age of 45 to elementary principalships in general may be a questionable practice.

The findings suggest, stated Gross, that if EPL is to be a criterian, many schools are selecting principals on grounds that appear to have little empirical justification, such as the type or amount of teaching experience, experience as an assistant or vice principal, number of graduate or undergraduate courses in education, number of graduate courses in educational administration, sex, and marital status. They also suggest that some characteristics may require more consideration including high level of academic performance in college, high order of interpersonal skill, motive of service, willingness to commit off-duty time to their work, and relatively little seniority to teachers.

Hoffman (134), in the study concerning the staffing of new elementary schools with unqualified principals during the 1950's, reported that most principals interviewed indicated that they were appointed suddenly without any preparation for responsibility. They felt that they should have had some form of experience in administrative responsibilities prior to being appointed. They generally agreed that the districts could possibly set up in-service workshops to better prepare them for their first principalship.

Fisher (102) in an article, "Personnel Policies Still Neglect to Develop Administrators" suggested that public agencies, such as education, are catching up with industry in what they can offer employees, but their administrative salaries and training plans are

still lagging. He cautioned that there is a shortage of adequate administrators at all levels, both in public agencies and in industry. Therefore the competitiveness of salary schedules, has kept a number of comparatively skilled administrators out of education in the past.

Secondly, executive training, until recently, has concerned itself solely with developing training programs for lower level workers with little thought to the training of the executives who direct the workers. The idea that executives are well trained by virtue of the fact that they are executives can no longer be accepted. Actually, said Fisher, executive development should not be confused with simple training. Development has an eye to the future. It attempts to prepare those with executive potential for high-level positions. This in turn implies that men with executive potential can be recognized at relatively early ages, somewhere between 30 and 45. Fisher suggested that because there are not presently enough administrators, a program to develop executives must be devised. It must be based first of all upon some planning for executive replacement; that is, men who ten, fifteen, or twenty years from now will become the executives must be found now. Fisher stated,

> A program of executive development poses a real challenge to political leaders to look beyond party loyalties to the agencies to relax narrow career lines and to bring civil servants to accept strong competition and changing job assignments.

Certification is an aspect of administrative employment practice. Howsam (142) observed that as teachers move or desire to move from one area of the United States to another, the problem of certification becomes quite evident. Certificates of one state are not necessarily valid in another. Therefore, an emphasis has been placed upon reciprocity of certification among the states. Administrators, he pointed out, share this problem with teachers to a great extent. Some states are modifying their regulations to allow teachers and administrators to move from one state to another removing the need for reciprocity compacts. One of the most recent trends in administrative certification is that of requiring institutional recommendation before a certificate is issued.

In another article, Howsam (143) noted that a secondary purpose of certification was to protect trained professionals against the unfair competition of the untrained. Certification standards may also become a means of control. They can determine preparation programs for educational service. They can control or regulate curricular offerings. They can limit the action of local educational bodies in the employment and placement of teachers.

A study reported by Lepick (164) about California unified school districts described current administrative employment practices there. The study concluded:

1. A definite trend has been established toward the assignment of more men than women to elementary school principalships.

2. A significant number of elementary school principals, one applying initially for credentials, circumvented an approved teacher-training institution by making direct application to the State Department of Education.

3. Women are more inclined to regard the elementary school principalship as a career position than are men.

4. Elementary school principals are in a position to exert more dynamic leadership in educational and community affairs than was reported in that study.

Communications

The principal, focal point of much of the ferment in the elementary schools, must maintain effective lines of communication in many directions. He must be responsive to the professionals and para-professionals of his staff. He must understand the needs and desires of pupils, parents, and community pressure groups. He must communicate effectively with other principals, the superintendent, and other more distant agencies of the academic community--the professional organizations, the state department of education, the colleges and universities.

McCarty's (174) study began with the hypothesis that teachers, administrators, and school board members would likely see personnel situations differently and that their perceptions would differ on occasions. There was, he noted, obvious disagreement among board members, administrators, and teachers with regard to some of the following items: (1) 'Some members of the board of education do not really understand what good teaching is.' While administrators and teachers tended to agree with this item, board members disagreed; (2) 'Teachers are required to spend too much time supervising students during lunch hours in the halls, and the like.' Teachers agreed. Board members and Administrators did not; (3) "Teachers need more time for actual teaching and preparation.' While board members were evenly split on this item, teachers and administrators agreed. Teachers agreed to a greater extent than administrators; (4) 'Work loads are not equal here. Some teachers are required to do more than others.' While board members and administrators disagreed with this item, teachers were nearly evenly split; (5) 'Teachers demonstrate genuine interest in the work of the board of education.' All groups were nearly evenly split on this item; (6) 'Many teachers seem to be interested primarily in salary and fringe benefits.' Nearly evenly split in all three groups; (7) 'The board of education knows and considers the reactions of teachers prior to taking action on matters

directly related to their employment and service.' While board members and administrators agreed with the item, teachers were more evenly split on this item; (8) 'For the work they are required to do, teachers are underpaid.' While board members and administrators disagreed with this item, teachers were split; (9) 'Our outstanding teachers are recognized and rewarded by the board of education.' While board members were split, administrators and teachers disagreed with the item; (10) 'School administrators are often unaware or only partially aware of the classroom teacher's problems.' While board members and administrators disagreed, teachers agreed with the statement; (11) 'Clarification is needed of decisions which are for the school board as distinguished from those which are really for the school administration.' Board members disagreed. Administrators and teachers were both evenly split.

A further outcome of the study by McCarty suggested that many teachers have only partial views of the real character of the working relationship between the board of education and its chief school administrator. It was also evident to McCarty that teachers are not particularly bothered by disputes at this level unless conflicts at the board-administrative level affect their own autonomy. Teachers' interest in the proceedings is relatively detached.

Perhaps one solution has been found in the professional advisory council. Such a council, described by Hughes (145) has been established in a school district in Montana. Hughes reported that the administrator found that the development of a democratic administrative system necessitated the establishment of some form of committee whereby the teachers or certified personnel within a district have an opportunity to communicate with the administrative head of the school district. He described the Professional Advisory Council as one organized to secure the best possible education for students, to promote communication and understanding between the administration and faculty, to augment professional growth, and to take under advisement the issues in the system.

The principal must communicate with principals of other districts about teachers who are leaving his system for another. He must give a reliable description of a teacher's potential value to the new system despite the limitations of a fairly brief letter of recommendation. Just as he expects to receive such letters incorporating basic principles such as honesty, frankness, and fairness, he must write his own recommendations in the same spirit. Berry (26) emphasized these points in describing the characteristics of a letter of recommendation.

Chapter VI

FINANCES AND FACILITIES

Maintenance

Saxe (224) described two cultures, one academic and one technical, which exist within the schools. The academic side is perhaps given more emphasis though school organizations must recognize the technical side also. Saxe examined the role of the custodial system within the schools, the custodians themselves and their perception of their part in the education system. He recommended that custodians be informed of the purpose of the school as it is now conceived and of his share of the responsibility for achieving that purpose. Concurrently with the orientation to mission, the custodians should have their line relationship defined. If, for example, they are not really expected to correct teachers on matters of housekeeping, this should be pointed out to them. In other words, what Saxe suggested is an orientation program for the para-professional or non-teaching staff; such orientation would become a responsibility of the elementary principal.

Saxe noted that the custodians' perceptions of their roles in the operation of a school reflect an orientation to conservation and an ethic of efficiency. Preserving the plant and equipment with the least effort is, therefore, a legitimate goal. It is the custodian's constant concern to keep things going with a minimum expenditure of effort and material on his part and on the part of his staff. In the light of his orientation, it is evident that the custodian must see an ideal principal as one who contributes most to his goal of order and conservation. Such a principal, Saxe suggested, will be characterized by firmness, by his ability to maintain good order and restrict the use of the school plant and equipment to the necessary minimum prescribed by law.

Service Staff

While much emphasis has been placed on the instructional role of the school, many districts have left the principal understaffed for the record keeping, clerical, accounting, and reporting duties. "A Study of Time Utilization by Oregon Elementary School Teachers and a Criterion for Time Apportionment" by Haddock (118) indicated that elementary school principals at all levels of operation are in need of more secretarial help for routine and record-keeping activities. This need is evidenced not only by the amount of time they spend during the work day, but by the extra work during weekends. An elementary school with more than fourteen teachers should have at least one administrative assistant in addition to a full-time principal and a full-time secretary. A final conclusion was that

all elementary school principals in Oregon spend a greater portion of their time on management and record-keeping activities and less on educational leadership activities than is recommended by the criterion of authorities and selected elementary school principal opinions.

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